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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF FOLLOWERSHIP
IN NEW HAMPSHIRE HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the University of New Hampshire

in Partial Fulfillment of

the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Education

May 2018

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my followers, those teachers who help make me a successful leader and our school such an incredible environment for our students. It is also dedicated to my family that has supported me through nine years of coursework and writing.

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At long last, I can acknowledge and thank the many people who supported the successful completion of my dissertation and degree. Without your patience and support, this nearly decade long journey would not have been possible.

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Thank you, of course, to my family for its steadfast support; especially Allyson, the best partner in this endeavor. I hope I have set an example for our daughters Phoebe and Eve who do not remember a time when dad was not “going to do UNH work,” and that they learned from my experience that perseverance and grit are keys to success in academia and life. I love you all.

I have learned a great deal about my life and work through this process and have tried my best to balance being a good scholar, leader, husband, and father. Now, on to the next chapter.

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ABSTRACT

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF FOLLOWERSHIP

IN NEW HAMPSHIRE HIGH SCHOOLS

by

Matthew S. Hicks

University of New Hampshire, May 2018

This study explores followership theory and practical application in schools, extending Robert Kelley's previous research from business to education. The study investigates three questions: 1) What is the distribution of Kelley's five followership types in schools? 2) What is the relationship between teachers' followership types and their demographic characteristics? 3) What leadership functions support teacher followership? These questions were explored using a modified 20-item version of Kelley's *The Followership Questionnaire* and open-ended responses from teachers. A total of 559 New Hampshire public high school teachers completed the survey. Results were analyzed for associations between teacher demographic characteristics and followership types. Teachers were selected for their expertise as educators, their existing leadership roles in classrooms, and their potential for positive impact on school-wide leadership from a follower position. This study provides research to support strengthening teacher followership as a means to improving school effectiveness and student achievement. The study found most teachers to be exemplary followers and recommends developing a new school-specific followership model and instrument to clarify teacher followership types compared to those in other industries.

“Leadership is grounded in a relationship. In its simplest form, it is a tripod – a leader or leaders, followers, and the common goal they want to achieve. None of these three elements can survive without the others.” Warren Bennis (2007, pp. 3-4).

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study explores school leadership through a followership construct. At a time when school leadership has become less hierarchical, with a unidirectional flow of authority downward, traditional forms have given way to shared-leadership paradigms where principals rely on teachers to play key roles (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2013; Crippen, 2012; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Elmore, 2000; Fink & Markholt, 2011; Mertler, Steyer, & Petersen, 1997; The Wallace Foundation, 2013). Despite vast amounts of research focusing on formal leadership roles (e.g. military generals, business presidents, school principals), far less has been studied concerning followers, their relationship with formal leaders, and contributions to organizational success. As demands on school leaders increase, teachers are more often asked to assume leadership roles beyond the classroom (Fink & Markholt, 2011; Liberman, Saxl, and Miles, 1988) to successfully lead schools.

Statement of the Problem

The role of school principal continues to change from manager to leader, requiring greater contributions from others to build and maintain successful schools (Burns, 2003; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; The Wallace Foundation, 2013). Sharing leadership within schools takes several forms (e.g. assistant principals, formal teacher-leadership positions)

and calls for increasing teacher input continue (Louis et al., 2010; The Wallace Foundation, 2013), but more needs to be learned about followership and teachers as followers within schools before broadly adopting and implementing shared leadership practices.

Followership research and literature focus on relationships between formal leaders and their followers, casting followers in a positive light where traditionally they have been seen negatively (Kelley, 1992). Patsy Baker Blackshear (2004) defines followership as a co-dependent relationship built primarily on a mutual belief in an organization's mission versus self-interest (pp. 3-4). Mertler et al. (1997) discuss followers as empowered subordinates linked with leaders and who assume responsibilities to challenge and assist leadership (pp. 5-6). Ira Chaleff (2009) extends the definition, referring to the relationship between leaders and followers as an action circle that balances and supports leadership (pp. 1-2). Though a partnership (Kelley, 1992), followership is also partly characterized by a follower's response to leadership (Kellerman, 2008).

Borrowing from Chaleff's (2009) notions of collaboration and Blackshear's (2004) commitment to organizational success, this study defines followership as a mutually supportive reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers collaborating to support an organization's mission and achieve its goals. The definition reinforces the concept that organizational success relies on collaborative relationships between leaders and followers. Without each other neither exists, nor does an organization. In the context of education, organizational success means school success and ultimately student achievement (Leithwood, Harris, & Strauss, 2013). Effective followership supports organizational success by supporting and challenging leadership.

The literature identifies styles or types of followership that, to varying degrees, contribute to that goal, typically differentiating among four or five different types ranging from a follower

who is minimally involved with an organization to one who is an integral part in its success (Blackshear, 2004; Chaleff, 2009; Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992). Kelley's (1992) five types include followers who are passive, pragmatic, conformist, alienated, and exemplary based on levels of independent thinking and active engagement. Exemplary followership is the "gold standard" among the five types. Blackshear (2004) also identifies an ideal follower as exemplary and, like Kelley, urges organizations to identify followership types to move more followers toward exemplary. This study examines Kelley's five followership types and supports exemplary followership as the most important to an organization's success.

The followership literature is primarily theoretical though increased empirical studies have been conducted in recent years (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009; Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Louis et al., 2010). The lack of validated instruments to measure followership has been one of the challenges facing researchers. Most studies have used Kelley's (1992) Followership Questionnaire (TFQ), one of the few instruments tested for validity and reliability (Blanchard et al., 2009; Colangelo, 2000; Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Favara, 2009; Shahbazi, Kalkhoran, Beshlideh, & Banitey, 2014; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). Followership research primarily exists in psychology, organizational behavior, and business, though Canadian researcher Carolyn Crippen has extensively studied followership in education using qualitative methods.

As a relatively recent construct, followership still requires definition (Carsten et al., 2010; Nolan & Harty, 2001; Thody, 2003). Just as difficult as it has been for scholars to define leadership, definitions of followership will also depend on where one sits, *in situ* (Van Wart, 2013), as conceptions change based on context. This has certainly been the case in educational leadership theory since the introduction of shared leadership models. Based on Horizontal

Leadership Theory (Van Wart, 2013), educational leaders with limited time and resources often attempt to flatten leadership within their schools, which provide “special conditions” (p. 559) to allow team leadership to thrive. Leadership necessitates following.

In education, school principals lead by moving teachers to follow as they collaboratively work to provide quality education for students. This gives rise to followership and its necessity for successful schools. Most followers in schools, teachers, are well educated in the field and have talents to support leadership and if necessary assume traditional leadership roles. Encouraging teachers to assume a greater share in school leadership may lead to greater support, motivation, participation, achievement, inspiration, and external connectedness (Louis et al., 2010; Van Wart, 2013).

Contrary to the voluminous literature on leadership, followership literature is scant. Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, and Morris (2006) identified through a non-scientific search on Amazon.com in 2004 that twenty results on leadership existed for each one on followership. Becoming a leader is more often seen as a sign of success than remaining a follower, which is more commonly viewed as the runner up position (Bjugstad et al., 2006; Blackshear, 2004; Crippen, 2012), thus the focus on leadership. Recent literature, however, supports followership as being equally important with leadership to the success of organizations (Blackshear, 2004; Chaleff, 1995; Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992).

Barbara Kellerman’s (2012) *The End of Leadership* identifies the paradigmatic shift from traditional forms of leadership to shared constructs that value followership in ways that give voice to subordinates more as equals. This change in the paradigm also requires followers to assume more responsibility to become actively involved in the organization. Exemplary followership requires much more from employees than simply showing up for work.

Kellerman's (2008) *Followership: How Followers are Creating Change and Changing Leaders* adopts Kelley's approach of focusing specifically on the importance of followers first and not as a response to leaders.

Two decades of scholarship have shown businesses that improve the quality of followership within their organizations are more dynamic and successful (Blackshear, 2004; Chaleff, 1995; Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992). Patsy Baker Blackshear (2004) describes the importance of quality followership in organizations, writing, "exemplary work effort by a critical mass of followers is needed to help sustain organizational productivity and to help organizations become world class. Otherwise the workforce offers unfulfilled potential" (p. 10); however, it may be difficult to understand the types of followers within an organization and thus how to support their involvement with leadership. Understanding followership types and knowing how they apply to employees assists leaders in identifying those more likely to benefit the organization. Schools are organizations likely with the same untapped potential among teachers.

Though businesses differ in many ways from schools, they share enough organizational similarities that lessons learned from the business world are likely to apply to a school setting (The Wallace Foundation, 2013). Insufficient followership research exists and even less concentrates on followership in K-12 school settings. Carolyn Crippen (2012) calls for more followership studies in schools, focusing on strengthening relationships in schools through enhancing authentic leadership and followership. Based on a survey of 445 teachers and principals, Crippen concluded that greater understanding between leaders and followers "will reinforce an atmosphere of transparency, trust, and authenticity within the school" (p. 195) that is critical in achieving shared goals and outcomes.

Conceptual Framework

This study borrows from major several leadership theories, primarily Horizontal and Collaborative Leadership Theory. To a lesser extent but tangential, it borrows from Transactional Leadership Theory and Ethical and Critical Leadership Theory. In times of change, Transformational Leadership Theory also applies as an extension of Transactional Leadership Theory that is naturally present in leader-follower relationships.

Horizontal Leadership Theory (HLT) dates to the 1970s (Van Wart, 2013) when Kerr and Jermier (1978) argued against the necessity of hierarchical leadership structures and proposed that ‘substitutes’ could stand in for leaders in certain situations. “Cohesive, interdependent work groups and active advisory and staff personnel also have the ability to render the formal leader’s performance feedback function inconsequential” (p. 379).

Van Wart (2013) applies HLT when systems, or organizations, receive greater emphasis than leaders and followers. He identifies three ‘schools of thought’: leaders often delegate work, foster systems in which the leader is not needed and avoids groups when they function well, and HLT is increasingly valued in a well-educated, fast-paced world, and responds to contemporary challenges among followers including cynicism and reduced compensation (Van Wart, 2013). This theory indicates that school leaders likely benefit from encouraging teacher involvement and facilitating small groups, or teams, of teachers collaborating to promote school success.

The meteoric rise of collaborative leadership, as well as the newly reconceptualized horizontal leadership, has resulted directly from problems facing contemporary leaders who must flatten organizations, provide more organic structures, enhance social integration, create learning organizations that change at the lowest level possible, and even find ways to include clients and the public more fluidly. (Van Wart, 2013, p. 559)

Though popular, especially since the 1990s, collaborative leadership has limitations. The hierarchical structure of schools is not likely to disappear, and horizontal and collaborative

leadership theory is limited by existing organizational structures. Gabris and Ihrke (2007) surveyed 1,182 federal employees to determine perceptions of leadership in hierarchical systems, challenging Frederick Thayer's (1973) assertion of the demise of pyramidal organization structures. They found that not only do hierarchical structures still exist through reporting systems, job assignments, and duties, but that followers continue to perceive leaders as maintaining higher rank in organizations, thus reinforcing the hierarchy. Notably for this study that focuses on teaching faculty, followers perceive much greater credibility in immediate superiors than those more remote, indicating that in both transactional and transformative leadership situations, teacher buy-in may be more effective the more involved the principal becomes in the process.

School principals who embrace leadership models that distribute leadership to their followers must attend to the context of their leadership and school and any cultural shifts that occur as they foster followership (Carsten et al., 2010). Transforming from a top-down structure to one in which teacher input and involvement is encouraged and expected may eventuate in greater cooperation between leadership and followers and greater teacher participation in decision-making, but principals must be acutely aware of their role in the process with their higher rank in school systems. They must provide teachers with the tools (e.g. support, training) they need to be effective followers and work with them in an ethical manner that demonstrates integrity and engenders trust. The collaborative component to horizontal and collaborative leadership theory that imagines client (e.g. student, parent, community member) involvement in school leadership is beyond the scope of this study, though periodically discussed in followership literature and a subject for future study. Similarly, this study does not make any claims that increasing followership in schools improves student outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

Followership and its relationship with leadership has yet to be fully explored (Baker, 2007), and even less is known about followership and followers in schools. Though similar in many ways organizationally, comparisons to followership in the business industry miss the culture and nuances of education and schools. Followership naturally exists in schools, but how does the distribution of followership types that Kelley identifies in business compare to education? The purpose of this study is to better understand followership in schools; particularly, by identifying followership types among teachers in large New Hampshire public high schools, exploring how these types are associated with demographic factors like age, gender, and teaching experience, and discovering ways school leaders support teacher involvement with leading successful schools.

Research Questions

Knowledge and research of how followership applies to education is limited (Crippen, 2012; Nolan & Hardy, 2001; Thody, 2003), especially as it applies to the relationships between building level principals and classroom teachers. School principals occupy formal roles as leaders and teachers as followers, but teachers differ greatly from roles occupied by followers in other industries. Most teachers are well-educated, including advanced degrees, and possess training specific to their roles as leaders of their classrooms. It is likely that the distribution of followership types in schools differs from other industries and what Kelley (1992) originally theorized. As school operations become even more collaborative (Fink & Markholt, 2011; Liberman et al., 1988), it is important to understand the composition of followers in schools,

what factors are associated with more positive followership types, and how relationships between principals and teachers can be strengthened to capitalize on talents teachers offer schools as organizations.

Based on the literature, and in part predicated on suggestions for future research made by Crippen (2012), this study will answer the following research questions:

RQ #1: How are Kelley's five followership types (exemplary, alienated, conformist, passive, pragmatic) distributed among classroom teachers in New Hampshire public high schools?

- This is examined using Kelley's (1992) The Followership Questionnaire, modified. Respondents answer 20 questions to determine followership types. Each followership dimension receives a score which is plotted with the other to determine a type. The types are analyzed using descriptive statistics.

RQ #2: How do followers' demographic characteristics differ across the followership types?

- This is examined using chi-square statistical analyses to show relationships among followership types and teachers' demographic characteristics. The questionnaire asked teachers to choose from a series of set responses.

Age: Four choices ranging from less than 29 years old to older than 50.

Gender: Three choices including male, female, and transgender.

Years of experience: Four options ranging from five or fewer to more than 30.

Education level: Five choices including associates, bachelor's, master's, advanced graduate study, and doctorate.

Leadership training or education: Four choices including courses, workshops, both, neither.

Administrative degree status: Two choices: yes or no.

Principal certification status: Two choices: yes or no.

Subject area: Fifteen choices including social studies, mathematics, science, English language arts, physical education, technology/digital education/computers, fine arts, performing arts, business, career/technical education/industrial arts, English language learners, life studies and wellness, health education, world languages, and other.

Years with principal: How many years the respondent has worked with the current principal. Five choices ranging from less than five to more than 21.

Years at current school: Four choices ranging from less than five to more than 30.

Number of non-contractual activities: How many activities did the respondent participate in beyond contractual requirements. Four options ranging from none to five or more.

RQ #3: What leadership practices support teacher independent thinking and active engagement in matters that affect the school?

- This is examined using responses from two open ended sub-questions asking respondents how the principals at their current schools support them as followers.
 - 1) How does your principal support teachers thinking independently on matters that affect the school?
 - 2) How does your principal support teachers' active engagement on matters that affect the school?
- Responses to the questions are analyzed using codes to discover emergent themes.

Definition of Key Terms

It is important to clearly define key terms used in this study, especially imprecise terms, like leadership, that have varied meanings in different contexts (Abowitz and Toole, 2010; Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008; Fellows and Liu, 2015). Abowitz and Toole (2010) warn against the “negative results of confounding the use and meaning of constructs” (p. 110), especially in mixed methods studies and urge clearly defining operational terms to protect the validity and reliability of the design and analysis.

Leadership: A reciprocal relationship between those who lead and those who decide to follow. Any definition of leadership must attend to the dynamics of this relationship (Kouzes and Posner, 1993).

Leader: In this study, the leader is the principal of the school.

Followership: A mutually supportive reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers collaborating to support an organization’s mission and achieve its goals.

Follower: In this study, the follower is a teacher within a school.

Followership Type: A description of a follower based on the combination of levels of the components of followership Active Engagement (AE) and Independent Critical Thinking (ICT) as assessed by Robert Kelley’s The Followership Questionnaire (1992). Levels of AE and ICT are determined by 10 questions geared to each component of followership.

Exemplary Follower: A type of follower who scores high in AE and ICT. This is a person who is highly dedicated to the organization and the leader, thinks independently, and takes initiative for the benefit of the organization.

Pragmatist Follower: A type of follower who scores in the mid-range of AE and ICT. This is a person who straddles the other four followership types, maintaining a moderate level of engagement and independent thinking.

Alienated Follower: A type of follower who scores low in AE and high in ICT. This is a person who displays strong independent thinking, but not dedication to the organization. This follower may have once been exemplary before some event prompted a decline in engagement.

Conformist Follower: A type of follower who scores high in AE and low in ICT. This is a person who is highly dedicated and engaged in the organization, unquestioningly following direction from leadership.

Passive Follower: A type of follower who scores low in AE and ICT. This is a person who displays neither independent thinking nor engagement in the organization beyond simply doing the job.

Independent Critical Thinking (ICT): Describes the first dimension of followership as a person within an organization who think for oneself, provides constructive criticism, is independent minded, innovative, and creative (Kelley, 1992).

Active Engagement (AE): Describes the second dimension of followership as a person within an organization who takes initiative, is autonomous and independent, self-managed, assumes ownership, participates actively, and exceeds job expectations.

Principal: The formal leader of a high school recognized within the school district and having legitimate supervisory authority over teachers.

Teacher: A person contracted to work in a teaching capacity and who has education and training to support their work. The teacher reports and is under the authority in some manner to the

principal of the school. The teacher is recognized by the school on the website either explicitly as “teacher” or “faculty.”

Subject (Academic): An academic discipline taught in the population of studied schools, including social studies, mathematics, and science.

Research Methods and Procedures

This study gathered data using a three-part questionnaire that asked for teacher demographic information, a 20-question followership type assessment, and two open ended questions to provide teacher voice. The first step in the process required modification of Kelley’s The Followership Questionnaire (TFQ) for its use with teachers. This included piloting the modified questionnaire with a sample of the target population. Once complete, TFQ(M) was built into the final questionnaire that was emailed to teachers in 37 New Hampshire high schools with student enrollment larger than 500. Responses were collected over a two-week period. The demographic data were analyzed descriptively to understand the teachers who participated and answer the first research question. These demographic data were then statistically compared with the followership types to analyze possible relationships and answer the second research question. Data from the open-ended questions included at the end of the questionnaire were analyzed for emergent themes to answer the third research question.

An additional question not related to the research questions asked participants to choose a description of followership that best matched their work as teachers within their current schools. They made choice without knowing which followership type matched each description. This question was added for informational purposes to compare results to those from TFQ(M).

The Research Instrument

The Followership Questionnaire originally developed by Kelley (1992) is used frequently in dissertations studying followership (Nicolet, 2014). Of the studies that have used TFQ for research purposes, most have modified it to make it more reader friendly to a particular sample group or to better ensure its reliability (Blanchard et al., 2009; Colangelo, 2000; Favara, 2009; Shahbazi et al., 2014; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002; VanDoren, 1998). Shahbazi et al. (2014) found Cronbach Alpha coefficients of .63 for ICT and .83 for AE. Tanoff & Barlow (2002) found similar values of .68 for ICT and .84 for AE. Others have assessed TFQ's construct validity by conducting factor analyses, finding a validity coefficient between .63 and .81 (Blanchard et al., 2009; Colangelo, 2000; Shahbazi et al., 2014). Based on the results of these studies and others that modified the original TFQ to a specific target group (Mertler et al., 1997), the use of a modified TFQ appears appropriate after similar process of tailoring questions to teachers

Population and Participants

The study draws from the population of teachers in New Hampshire public high schools with student enrollments larger than 500. All employees in 37 of 44 high schools were targeted if it could be reasonably determined that they were teachers through publicly available information on school websites. Seven high schools in the target group were not included in the study. Three had (e.g. public academies) different structures than traditional public high schools and the other schools in the target group. Four schools did not provide public information about their teachers, or did not readily provide email contact information, and were eliminated from the study to protect the anonymity of those teachers.

Data Collection

More than 2,700 (2,762) emails were sent to teachers in the 37 selected New Hampshire public high schools. Care was taken to protect the anonymity of all respondents and their respective schools. One email was sent per school with all teachers included as recipients. The first round of emails was sent over a two-day period. Teachers received the emails that included a hyperlink to a Qualtrics survey. Approximately one week later, reminder emails were sent asking those teachers who had not yet completed the survey to please do so. In approximately one more week, the survey was closed and the data downloaded. Teachers were offered an incentive for completing the survey. Eight \$25 gift cards were assigned, using a random number generator, to those respondents who wished to be considered for the drawing. All eight gift cards were mailed to the selected respondents after the data collection was complete.

A total of 567 completed questionnaires were collected. Some responses were eliminated when believed to potential bias the results. After evaluating all data, 559 responses comprised the *N* for this study. This information was stored securely to protect respondent anonymity.

Significance of the Study

As school leadership becomes more democratic, the need for followers to become actively involved increases. A true shared-leadership model demands that many constituencies play some role in a school's operation. Leaders and followers must work productively and collaboratively to achieve goals and produce outcomes (Crippen, 2012). Followership, as a concept originally described as subordinacy, emerged in the business world in the mid-1960s (Kellerman, 2008), but received little attention until the publishing of Robert Kelley's *The Power of Followership* in the early 1990s. Widely known as the founder of the modern conception of

followership, Kelley (1992) challenged the “myth of leadership” as a “romanticized illusion” (pp. 16-17) that is unlikely to be actualized by any one person and describes numerous historical events (e.g. American Revolution) that could not have succeeded without followers. Most people, Kelley notes, spend most of their time in follower roles, yet are rarely mentioned or acknowledged for their work.

School principals often are overburdened with the expectations and demands of their work and struggle to accomplish all that is required of them (Fink & Markholt, 2011; Louis et al., 2010; Murphy, 1968; Robinson, 2011; Sergiovanni, 1992; Spillane & Hunt, 2011;), including being available to teachers. Raidford (2004), in her dissertation studying span of control and school performance, identifies the ratio of supervisors to personnel as more than twice in schools to ratios in manufacturing and nearly three times greater than ratios in the communications industry. She argues that a smaller span of control, or more direct supervisory relationship between principals and school faculty, is one of the key successes to improving student achievement (Raidford, 2004). Meier and Bothe’s (2003) study of span of control in Texas public schools reveals similar findings. Both studies reference Luther Gulick’s (1937) three elements of span of control: diversity of function, time, and space. Meier and Bothe conclude that these elements are “important determinants of span-of-control relationships in organizations” (2003, p. 68), and that schools are appropriate research settings for their high professionalism and hierarchical structures.

Gulick’s three elements help determine an appropriate span of control for organizations. In education, for example, schools with more diversity of function (e.g. different course offerings and programs) require more supervision, thus needing a narrower span of control. Stable schools require less constant supervision and training, allowing administrators more time to focus on

other tasks, thus allowing for a wider span of control. Similarly, the size of a school (e.g. enrollment, size of teaching faculty, number of buildings) determines the desired span of control. Schools systems requiring narrow spans of control often do not have resources to increase administrative staffing, leaving the span of control larger than desirable for optimal school success and potentially affecting student outcomes. In the absence of such resources, followership becomes even more important. Followers, especially those who are dedicated and able to work independent of direct supervision, allow schools to run effectively and more efficiently with a wider span of control.

The cultivation of followership in schools helps promote the collaboration and collegiality necessary to support quality instruction and student achievement (The Wallace Foundation, 2013). Louis et al. (2010) found statistically significant relationships between collective leadership, defined as “the extent of influence that organizational members and stakeholders exert on decisions in their schools” (p. 19), teacher motivation and positive workplace setting. They also found that these conditions to be positively correlated with student achievement, thus, their study revealed that collective leadership has a significant indirect correlation with student achievement. These empirical findings and recommendations from Louis et al. (2010) support what Kelley (1992) and others have asserted for the last two-decades. Including followers in leadership improves leadership for the benefit of organizations.

Education, like business, is a human endeavor. People work together to promote growth. In business, it may be the growth of the company and in schools the academic and social growth of students and the institution. In the isolation of their classrooms, teachers are limited to their own knowledge and expertise; a situation that threatens student learning when teacher weaknesses exist. Principals face the same challenges without involving others in school

leadership. Additional voices must be heard, questions raised, and critical thought encouraged to maximize the collective intelligence of all who work in schools and ultimately student successes.

Wooley, Chabris, Pentland, Hashmi, and Malone (2010) found statistically significant evidence for collective intelligence (*c*) in groups similar to that found in individuals, and that the factor is dependent on the formation of the group and the manner in which they interact when together. Findings such as Wooley et al. (2010) indicate that collaboration among teachers and with school administrators may provide additional benefits, including collective intelligence, to individuals working in isolation. Louis et al. (2010) found similar results, showing empirically that teachers in higher-achieving schools had greater influence on decisions. Encouraging teachers to engage more in school decision-making, a key component of exemplary followership, likely increases the overall intelligence and collective knowledge (Louis et al., 2010) of those working to make schools successful. Because the composition of the group and its behavior may contribute to increased intelligence, leaders must understand how to assemble groups and monitor their work, hence the importance of understanding followership types. Anecdotally, numerous education authors have written about the success of leadership teams and professional learning communities in schools. Increased awareness of how teachers participate in this process of school leadership promises to further strengthen shared-leadership models.

Relevant Literature

This study is grounded in followership literature that emerged from the business world in the late 1980s and early 1990s, primarily based on Robert Kelley's *The Power of Followership* (1992). Kelley created the five followership types and the instrument used in this study. Kelley's followership model consists of two interesting dimensions, independent critical thinking and

active engagement, and believes all followers provide value their organizations. Ira Chaleff's (2009) model closely resembles Kelley's and concentrates on courage in followership.

Barbara Kellerman (2008) and Patsy Baker-Blackshear (2004) developed single-axis models, each based on a single continuum of followership types, and conceive of more and less valuable follower types. Together, these models of followership provide deep understanding of the theory and its importance to leadership.

Carolyn Crippen's (2012) work focuses on followership in an educational context. Her examination of followership is drawn from Kelley's work and prioritizes relationships in her followership work. In addition to followership types, Kelley (1992) also conceived of pathways to followership. Using these pathways, Crippen assigned typical school positions to each pathway, connecting the followership as a business construct to education.

Contributions, Limitations, and Assumptions

School leadership continues to flatten toward shared models where teachers assume leadership responsibilities in addition to their classroom roles. This study continues work that examines the followers in organizations; who they are, why they choose to follow, and what their roles as followers mean to leaders, leadership, and organizations. It also extends the limited work that studies teachers as followers. Little is known about distribution of followership types in schools. Findings from this study might help teachers (followers) understand the importance of their contributions to schools and their leadership. It might also help principals (leaders) identify and better utilize expertise among teachers and to improve followers' roles in the interest of school improvement. The study also provides information not available in the literature about

how teachers feel principals support their independent critical thinking and active engagement as followers.

The study has a few limitations. It is limited by those who chose to respond to the questionnaire. It is not possible to infer, from those who chose not to respond, anything pertaining to their followership type or perceptions of followership. It is further limited that schools in the study may not be generalizable to other types of New Hampshire schools, especially middle and elementary schools or to schools outside of the state. New Hampshire is on average, one of the wealthiest states in the nation (Posey, 2016; The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, 2015), thus most high schools provide numerous clubs, activities, and committees for which teachers can volunteer. It may be unclear from the data how generalizable the findings would be to less affluent schools where teachers would not have such opportunities and as a result might score lower on the active engagement scale despite their desire to participate more. New Hampshire is also one of the least diverse states in the United States, thus race was not included as a variable in this study and limits its generalizability to more diverse regions.

It is important to identify my professional bias toward collaborative leadership. This study provides substantial evidence to support modern shared leadership practices in schools, and my fifteen years of experience as a school principal leads me to favor this approach in theory and practice. I have included arguments against shared leadership to provide a balanced perspective on teacher inclusion in school leadership. When analyzing the data and writing the dissertation, I keep my bias toward inclusion front and center and use it to help ensure that my conclusions are supported by the data and are not the result of my preconceived beliefs of school leadership.

Organization

This study is organized in a traditional five-chapter format. Chapter One, the introduction makes the case for the significance of the problem. Chapter Two situates the study in the context of literature relevant to leadership, school leadership, and followership. Chapter Three situates the study within a mixed method framework, establishing the research setting, population, data collection, and method of analysis. Chapter Four presents findings, including quantitative results for the first two research questions and qualitative results from the third research question. Chapter Five presents analysis of the results relating to the research questions, literature review, and conceptual framework (Fellows & Liu, 2015).

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

School leadership has evolved from teachers managing one-room schoolhouses to teams of educators working collaboratively to support student learning. This evolution parallels leadership changes in most industries but is unique in schools that serve children, a vastly different product than those produced in factories or offices. The role of school principals, the customary leaders in education, has also evolved from its beginning. Modern principals face increasing demands at school with added scrutiny and accountability measures exercised beyond the schoolhouse gate.

For principals to handle the numerous management and leadership tasks that comprise their work, they increasingly turn to their followers for assistance. Voluminous research exists about leaders and leadership, but far less is known about followers, their relationship with leaders, and their role in organizational leadership (Bjugstad, 2006). In schools, even less attention has been given to the relationship between teachers as followers and their role in school leadership. This study hopes to extend knowledge about followership to the education field and better understand teachers as followers and their participation with principals to lead schools.

Early School Leadership

The modern conception of the school principal did not emerge in the United States until the mid-19th century and did not become standard leadership practice until the progressive era of the early 20th century when schools transformed from independent one-room schoolhouses into municipally controlled centralized organizations (Brown, 2005; Hart & Bredeson, 1996;

Rousmaniere, 2013; Tyack & Hansot, 1982). The fledgling principal role was one where a senior teacher likely continued to teach, but also assumed school management responsibilities (Tyack & Hansot, 1982). Changes in the structure of schools paralleled changes in other industries, as Frederick Taylor's principles of scientific management encouraged efficiency and production (Foster, 1986). Until the 1990s, when leadership began to be emphasized over management, schools operated much as they did more than a century ago (Louis et al., 2010; The Wallace Foundation, 2013). The unique purpose of education and relationships between school leaders and followers call for a style of leadership that encourages participation by all stake-holders.

The earliest public American schools of the mid-1800s were typically one room schools serving multiple ages of pupils taught by a lone teacher with students assisting each other in the learning process. The teacher performed all duties necessary to keep the school going (Rousmaniere, 2013), acting not as leaders but as managers. They taught, cleaned, performed clerical duties, and implemented external mandates from community leaders (Brown, 2005). As schools evolved, especially with the advent of the Common School near the end of the 19th century, and compulsory education which brought more students into the common school (Brown, 2005), school governance also changed. Solitary teachers began working in larger schools with other teachers, and one was often designated as a lead teacher, but typically no official principal role existed (Bogotch, 2005; Brown, 2005; Rousmaniere, 2013). The term principal, as a designated title for a school's leader, was not commonly used until the mid 19th century (Brown, 2005).

The rapid growth of cities during the industrial revolution of the mid 19th century (Hart & Bredeson, 1996) and the progressive movement of the early 20th century transformed schools into larger, more centralized institutions (Labaree, 2005). Frederick Taylor's popular scientific

management movement supported business and industry leaders (Hart & Bredeson, 1996) and encouraged efficiency in industry. Community leaders, influenced by this movement, forced similar changes on education (Callahan, 1962; Foster, 1986; Labaree 2005). The composition of school governing boards changed to include businessmen, who favored operating schools as businesses, including superintendents who increasingly identified as business executives versus scholars. Principals followed the external demands made by the businessmen who began taking over school governance (Callahan, 1962).

Within schools, the formal role of school principals became firmly established and professionalized, physically and symbolically separating it from teaching. University schools of education further strengthened principals' formal governance roles by developing academic programs specifically designed to train and certify school administrators (Murphy, 2006; Rousmaniere, 2013), thus creating the professional school administrator found in most public schools today. Principals became more like factory managers than head teachers or leaders of organizations. Their offices were physically separated from classrooms and away from teachers and students (Brown, 2005). Raymond Callahan's (1962) investigation of this change revealed its start around the turn of the 20th century, and by 1930 school leaders, particularly superintendents, viewed themselves as business managers versus educators. The duties of superintendents and principals did not differ greatly (Tyack & Hansot, 1951). Both were responsible for managing and implementing top-down external mandates (Callahan, 1962).

Professionalizing the role of school principals strengthened their formal governance positions within an increasingly bureaucratic school system and transformed them from educators to business managers. Where once head teachers worked collaboratively with a few colleagues to run small schools, making site-based decisions, post-Taylorism principals became

aligned with centralized systems. “Like the foreman in the factory and the mid-level executive in the office building, the position of school principal was designed to be an administrator responsible for day-to-day building operations rather than strategic policy decisions” (Rousmaniere, 2013, p. 4). This model where principals lead from the top with limited input from teachers and other stakeholders did not change significantly until the 1990s when shared models of leadership began to take hold in education (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2013; Elmore, 2000; Gordon & Louis, 2011; Rousmaniere, 2013). Some prophetic school leaders, however, advocated early on for sharing school leadership with teachers.

In the 1890s, William Maxwell, district superintendent in Brooklyn and New York City, encouraged school principals, with every interaction, to help teachers build capacity to think independently and engage in their work for the benefit of students doing the same (Bogotch, 2005). Maxwell was a rare voice of dissent at a time when most educators subscribed to the vocational and efficient movement in education (Callahan, 1962). Instead of mindlessly adding parts to an object on an assembly line, teachers must be able to engage within their communities and think for themselves. Maxwell did not have empirical evidence that principals and teachers working collaboratively to lead schools would benefit schools but seemed to understand that dictates from above in a hierarchical system interfered with quality teaching and negatively impacted student achievement.

Schools have always been subject to external pressures and educators have always resisted, arguing that schools should not be organized similarly to other industries. “Education is not a business. The school is not a factory” (Callahan, 1962, Preface). Schools serve children and young adults acting in *loco parentis* while educating them academically and socially. Teachers do not produce widgets, but they do typically work within hierarchical organizations with goals.

A teacher's role is a duality, as both a follower within the hierarchy of school leadership and leader within the classroom.

Despite differences between education and other fields, schools share similarities with other types of social organizations. Evolution of leadership theory and practice outside of education offers insight into how schools might change for the benefit of the children they serve (Hart & Bredeson, 1996). Contemporary shared models of leadership are better fits for modern schools than traditional hierarchical models that have persisted since the industrial revolution of the early 20th century. Leaders and followers benefit from working collaboratively, encouraging increased contribution from teachers in the leadership process (Louis et al., 2010). This requires that school principals partner with teachers with the understanding that leadership is “an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real challenges that reflect on mutual purposes” (Rost, 1991, p.102). Current leadership theory advocating including followers in the leadership process results from more than a century of slow and steady focus on followers and their roles within organizations. Various leadership theories will be explored below to provide a foundation for the emergence of the importance of followership in public schools.

Leadership History and Evolution: From Great Man to Followership Theories

Conceptions and practices of leadership have evolved from the importance of a single birthright leader ruling, unchallenged, over subjects to collaborative practices where teams of people guide mission-driven organizations within a framework of shared leadership. Much of this transition has been to increasingly consider the roles of followers as contributors to leadership. Leadership scholars James Kouzes and Barry Posner (1993) define leadership as “a reciprocal relationship between those who lead and those who decide to follow. Any definition

of leadership must attend to the dynamics of this relationship.” (p. 1). This understanding of leadership is the culmination of a century (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011) of persistent debate about what characterizes effective leadership and followers’ roles in the process.

With societal changes in post-industrial societies, as knowledge industries gained ground on factory models, leadership evolved from hierarchical to flatter forms. Leadership theories progressed over several decades to models that examine relationships between leaders and followers and recognize teams as characterizing leadership (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Cawthorn, 1996; Malos, 2012). The evolution of educational leadership roughly follows this pattern. Understanding how these theories have changed provides insight into challenges of modern school leadership. This study examines five major leadership theories and their relationships to school leadership. It argues that recent shared leadership models contribute to effective school leadership but lack a true understanding of followers, and their followership, necessary to complete a shared leadership relationship.

Great Man and Trait Theories

Leadership theories have slowly evolved from focusing solely on a leader’s attributes that create effective leadership to relationships between leaders and followers in a leadership process. Prior to the 1940s, most leadership theories focused on the personal traits of leaders. Definitions consistently characterized leadership as impressing the leader’s will and inducing obedience on the led and organizing masses to follow a predetermined direction (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Rost 1991). The Great Man and trait-theories focused on leaders’ “dispositional precursors” of male leader effectiveness (Hoffman et al., 2011, p. 348). Until the American industrial revolution, trait-like leadership did not apply to schools. The women who managed small schools were often

chosen for their character and ideology (Tyack & Hansot, 1982), not necessarily innate traits attributed to Great Man theory. Female leaders and minorities were not conceived of in Great Man theory (Hart & Bredeson, 1996), and as schools grew and became more centralized, school leadership began mirroring that of other industries.

At the turn of the 20th century, municipal boards, much like modern school boards, began selecting principals to lead schools. White men were frequently chosen, replacing women who once managed schools, and were selected to efficiently manage schools as was the norm in non-education industries (Brown, 2005). The qualities that municipalities sought in leaders changed as trait-like theories of leadership lost appeal when scholars began arguing that specific leader traits could not be universally applied to all situations leaders faced and ignored “situational and environmental factors that play a role in a leader’s level of effectiveness (Horner, 1997).

Behavioral Leadership Theory

Despite the endurance of trait-like theories (Hoffman et al., 2011), behavioral theories became established after the 1940s when leadership was viewed generally as a combination of stable personal characteristics and fluid factors in social relationships (Stogdill, 1948) and looked at how leaders behave versus simply how they appear to others (Horner, 1997). Instead of viewing birthright leaders with inherited greatness, behavioral theories identified characteristics that allowed more followers to assume leadership roles (Hoffman et al. 2011) and analyze leaders in the context of their organizations (Horner, 1997). Leadership became viewed as less pre-determined and fixed and more as something that could be taught. Researchers began arguing that situational changes in groups or organizations precipitate leadership changes where leaders and followers may switch roles (Kerr and Jermier, 1978; Stogdill, 1948), thus conceiving the inclusion of followers in a leadership process. Behavioral theories evolved into contingency

theories that examined leadership based on previous factors including leader traits, behaviors, and the context in which leaders lead (Horner, 1997).

Contingency Theories

Contingency theories of leadership build on the previous theories and argue that no one leadership style is the best for all situations but depend on associated variables belonging to the leaders, the situation, and the followers. Contingency theories extend both attribute and behavioral theories and provide a more practical view of leadership. Several contingency theories offer slightly different perspectives on the variables that influence leadership.

Path-Goal Theory applies to this study as one of the first leadership theories that included the importance of followers (Horner, 1997). “It is a dyadic theory of supervision in that it does not address the effect of leaders on groups or work units, but rather the effects of superiors on subordinates” (House, 1996). Despite advancing the importance of followers, this early iteration of path-goal theory still focuses on the leader first. Decades later, Robert House (1996) included shared leadership theory as an important addition to his path-goal theory based on results of studies that showed that peer leadership often had better results for organizational effectiveness than formal leadership (Bowers & Seashore, 1996). House (1996) argues that when a leader encourages followers to share responsibility for leadership, a greater sense of cohesiveness and performance results, thus followers should be empowered and motivated in the leadership process.

Motivation and Transformational Leadership Theories

Motivation is a key component of leadership theories that encourage empowerment and participation of followers (House, 1996). Leaders work to create an environment that motivates people to move in their direction and “an emphasis on the people being led opposed to the

leader” (Horner, 1997, p. 273). Several motivation theories exist to explain what motivates followers to actively engage in organizations from satisfying personal needs to the way they are treated on the job to the probability their actions will be reciprocated. The importance of motivational theories for school leadership focuses on teachers and how principals create school cultures that motivate teachers to contribute to the school as an organization and in turn to the continued success of the principal as the leader in the process. As teachers contribute leadership to the school, they help determine cultural criteria that will determine the success of the principal within the organization (Schein, 2010).

Transformational leadership theory has been popular in organizations since the mid 1980s and builds directly on motivational theories (Horner, 1997). James McGregor Burns (1978) describes a transforming leader as one who “recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower” and “looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower” (p. 4). Transformational leaders embrace conflict and change as a natural function of organizations. Their roles are to create environments where followers thrive. Paying attention to relationships with followers, leaders work to build trust and share leadership (Burns, 1978). Together, they work for the good of the organization (Bass and Avolio, 1993). These theories encourage follower empowerment and collaboration between leaders and followers in the interest of organizational success; however, some critics question whether transformational theories actually include followers as a meaningful part of organizational leadership if they are still subject to the authority of the hierarchical leader (Yukl, 1999).

Contemporary theories advocate more collaboration between leaders and groups of followers but are criticized as preserving the duality of the leader-follower dynamic, which ultimately

remains leader-centric (Yukl, 1999). In studies with positive correlations between a transformative leadership approach and follower successes, interpretations of the data supported the leader's influence over followers, versus leadership as a truly shared process (Yukl, 1999). Despite the involvement of followers in the leadership process, leaders' contributions continued to be the focus of organizational successes.

Relational leadership theories do not change the power leaders have over followers, even if they improve their relationships. Leaders continue to have the responsibility of recognizing and reminding followers about organizational objectives without necessarily providing them a voice or vehicle in the process (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Malos, 2012), thus sustaining the notion that "leadership is basically doing what the leader wants done" (Rost, 1991, p.70). Despite advancements in recognizing the importance of relationships between leaders and followers in organizational leadership, advocates for greater follower inclusion argued for even greater sharing of actual leadership responsibilities.

Distributed and Shared Leadership Theories

Following the rise of transformational leadership theory and responding to criticism that previous theories remained leader focused, shared leadership theories gained increased popularity in the 1990s. Though these theories emerged in the literature in the mid-1900s (Fitzsimons, James, & Denyer, 2011) as organizations in post-industrial societies became more complex and fast-paced, they did not become widely accepted until late in the 20th century when it became clear that "solo" leaders (Crawford, 2012) struggled to effectively lead industries like education that required leaders to be experts in many different areas. Leadership theory and practice steadily changed to pay greater attention to followers and solo leadership became increasingly unpopular. People became increasingly dissatisfied with the "two sacrosanct

binaries”: leaders and followers (Gronn, 2002, p. 425). For organizations to succeed, leaders in a modern society began increasingly developing followers as co-leaders by empowering and trusting them to autonomously assume some of the leaders’ roles (Baron, 1995). Nearing the end of the 20th century, shared leadership, often known in education as distributed leadership (Elmore, 1990), was being advocated for organizational success (Blackshear, 2004).

Shared leadership theories developed in management and organization studies about the same time distributed leadership developed in education studies when schools began attempting to distribute leadership practices among administrators, teachers, and others within school systems (Fitzsimons et al., 2011). Distributed theories advocate flattening leadership, potentially transforming or replacing the role of the solo leader. “The leadership actions of any individual leader are much less important than the collective leadership provided by members of the organization” (Yukl, 1999, pp. 292-293). The process of leadership becomes more important than the leader herself. In this paradigm, the school principal leads with other within the school a process focused on organizational rather than leader success.

Knowledge-based authority structures are collegial rather than bureaucratic. Teams of teachers representing diverse professional functions, specializations, experiences, and perspectives would make major decisions over education. The role of the school administrator would become much more explicitly administrative, facilitating and coordinating educational decisions made by teacher teams. (Gideonse, 1990, p.116)

This model shifts the role of a school principal from middle manager in the district, receiving and executing mandates from the superintendent’s office, to a leader who works collaboratively with teams of professionals to lead the school. In the distributed model, leaders at the building level including teachers, support staff, parents, administrators, and students collaborate on mission driven goals. The distributed leadership model affords opportunities for

all constituencies to have a role in helping achieve organizational goals, but it also is not without critics.

Jacky Lumby (2013) sharply criticizes distributed leadership practices and the potential for abuses of power without changing the traditional structure in schools.

Distributed leadership literature is littered with contradictions. It rejects previous heroic, hierarchical models of leadership, yet also acknowledges the persistence of such leadership, and even supports its necessity and value. Its rhetoric about distribution and empowerment, and the acclamation of the head teacher using one-dimensional power to enable others to lead, appears alongside evidence of two-dimensional power so that 'autonomy' is offered with a leading rein. (p. 8)

Lumby, referencing Hatcher 2005, argues that schools have become increasingly complex worlds, thus successful leadership requires more people, but she accuses distributive leadership advocates of ignoring dissenting voices. She also claims that shared leadership is an old concept dating back to the 1950s and was never meant to be more than a heuristic tool, an intellectual project relating to cognition and activity theory (Lumby, 2013). It is seductive, she claims, but does not substantively change the structure. In short, Lumby argues that distributive leadership is no more than smoke-and-mirrors (Lumby, 2013).

Criticism that shared leadership preserves and supports heroic leadership may be true if misapplied. Without distributing leadership within schools, few people outside hierarchical leaders, especially at the district level, will have meaningful roles in leadership; however, schools that structure leadership as a truly inclusive process will not replicate heroic leadership models but include the expertise of followers (teachers) for the benefit of the organization (school).

Distributed Leadership a Natural Fit for Schools. Leadership in schools and industries have similar evolutions (Hoerr, 2005). While some industries are better suited for more top-down leadership styles, schools are particularly suited for distributed leadership models (York-Barr &

Duke, 2004). Teachers comprise most of a school's personnel. They are well-educated professionals whose skillsets benefit their individual classrooms and the school at large (Leithwood et al., 2013). Including teachers in school leadership creates the potential for an organizational culture that promotes teacher engagement beyond the classroom, leading to schools where a professional culture ultimately benefits student learning.

In today's schools, principals are rarely solo leaders. They are likely to have leadership teams consisting of some mix of vice principals, curriculum directors, department heads, special education directors and others as part of school-wide leadership team. In many ways, this approach is not new. In the late 1960s, researchers at the University of Wisconsin-Madison promoted shared decision making and teaming as part of the reform effort Individually Guided Education (IGE) in an effort to personalize education for students (Pyeong-gook, 2002). Education reform movements of the 1980s began encouraging schools to involve classroom teachers more in school change initiatives (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) through various teacher leadership roles (Sykes, 1990). Reformists advocated greater professionalism in teaching, and schools became increasingly democratized (Elmore, 1990; Gideonse, 1990; Johnson, 1990; Little, 1988; Raywid, 1990; Sykes, 1990). Leadership teams became one example of including and valuing followers in the leadership process, but these teams include a minority of teachers in schools and may only comprise followers currently in administrative positions. Truly distributing leadership within schools requires harnessing teachers' education and experience and is crucial for effective and successful schools. Hauge, Norenes, and Vedoy (2014) describe the importance of teacher participation in distributed school leadership as a reciprocal relationship between two levels of professionals: the administrators and the teachers.

First, the teachers are embedded in professional practices framed by a large set of societal expectations and institutional regulations, including systems of accountability and resource

allocations. Second, the principal is entirely dependent on the teachers—especially their competencies and motivations for teaching and learning—to fulfill the overall aims of the school. (p. 358)

Elmore (1990) recognizes two waves of education reform in the late 20th Century, one focusing on higher content standards and the other, in part, on the organization and management in schools which became “more complex, organizationally and politically” (p. 6) by the end of the 20th Century. Reform in the second wave involved teachers in school decision-making, altering the distribution of power within schools to provide teachers roles in the governance process. Together, these changes enhanced a professional culture in schools necessary for principals to share leadership with followers.

From the perspective of the professional model, then, school restructuring is accomplished by changing the organization of schools to reflect the high level of expertise and judgment embodied in teachers' work. This model requires a steady supply of highly skilled practitioners, a reward system that values knowledge and competence, and an occupational structure that places heavy emphasis on collegial interaction on problems concerning practice and access to outside knowledge. (Elmore, 1990, p. 18)

Education reform aimed at improving the quality of education should involve teachers who deliver it. Teachers, as leaders of autonomous classrooms, become empowered by participating in discussions of practice and policy, which ultimately affect positively their instructional duties and working conditions (Leithwood et al., 2013) and ultimately their schools. Some teachers already participate in school leadership. Teacher-leaders assume roles beyond their teaching duties. In some schools, these teachers have received additional training and often financial compensation. Sykes (1990) describes how teacher leadership contributes to a professional culture in schools in which teachers assume some of the principal's traditional roles.

The creation of new roles and tasks for teachers must be connected to the improvement of teaching as a whole. Such new roles and tasks would serve to legitimate teachers' work

outside of direct contact with students, would contribute to the creation of a learning community, and would underscore the cardinal professional commitment to continuous growth. Such responsibilities might include teacher induction and evaluation, staff development, practical inquiry, and school-based policy settings. (pp. 89-90)

Teacher-leaders, envisioned as master teachers, have knowledge and experience of learning and instruction, curriculum development, broad academic pursuits, administrative and organizational skills, and strong but caring interpersonal skills (Leithwood et al., 2013; Liberman et al., 1998). These professionals have participated in the formation of collaborative structures in education and contribute to school leadership in formal and informal capacities. Teacher-leader roles are indeed powerful influences in schools and create organizational and emotional conditions identified by crucial to influencing student learning (Leithwood et al., 2013).

When teachers lead, they help to create an environment for learning that influences the entire school community. Beginning teachers find sympathetic and knowledgeable colleagues to work with, examples of practice to emulate, and habits of inquiry that will last throughout their career. Veteran teachers open up to issues outside their classroom that affect what goes on inside; they find new reasons to share their hard-earned knowledge and identify with the larger community. These kinds of changes shape the school community indeed, making it more of a learning community leading to the recruitment and retention of more and better novice teachers, invigorating the professional lives of experienced teachers, and raising the quality of teaching and learning for both students and their teachers. (Liberman & Miller, 2004, p. 421)

School principals in this shared relationship utilize the talents of teacher-leaders to help implement initiatives and affect change, but this requires letting go of command and control, something for which may be difficult for principals. As a generation of school leaders nears retirement, training collaborative administrators for new leadership models will be a challenge for future generations (Elmore, 1990) and should reflect collaborative processes found in other industries (Johnson, 1990; Raywid, 1990).

Hambright and Franco (2008) describe a model for concurrent leadership training at Wright State University in which principals are trained alongside teacher-leaders. During this

training, future principals and teacher-leaders receive similar training, become accustomed to working together, and understand the benefits of collaboration. Traditionally, principal preparation programs isolated leaders from their followers. In university models that train principals and teacher-leaders together “emergent principals view and relate to teachers as vital components of a team approach for building success and not as isolated classroom teachers” (Hambright & Franco, 2008, p. 272). Creating and encouraging teacher leadership roles in schools and training principals as colleagues with teacher-leaders help create trusting working relationships between leaders and followers and is one way to utilize teachers’ expertise to help principals lead schools.

Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) also help create a culture of continuous learning within schools, allow teachers to assume leadership roles, and enable principals to learn alongside and from teachers. DuFour and Eaker (1998) popularized Professional Learning Communities as an approach to transform the hierarchical factory model of school governance into a collaborative model for school improvement, citing a rare “consistent message and clear sense of direction” (p. 25) from educational researchers. Learning organizations represent the future of successful organizations, including schools. Characteristics of PLCs, reflected and extended in the 2015 national leadership standards for principals, include possessing a shared mission, promoting collective inquiry and collaboration, creating professional capacity and community for school personnel, involving parents and students, seeking continuous improvement, and maintaining action and results orientations. (DuFour & Eaker, 1998; National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2015).

In PLCs, professional learning, traditionally known as professional development, occurs within schools, creating communities of inquiry that before might not have existed. “Implicit in

the creation of the professional learning communities is the idea that continued learning is key to improving practice; that learning is inherently a social process; and that learning can be facilitated – in fact accelerated – through well-developed and supported organizational structures” (Fink & Markholt, 2011, p. 321). The learning occurs collaboratively within schools, versus away at conferences, often targets the school’s specific needs and focuses on improving teachers’ practices to facilitate student-learning versus teacher’s teaching (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2009). Fink and Markholt (2011) urge the use of local experts in PLCs, providing opportunities for teachers to become knowledge leaders in schools. The key is finding the experts who can skillfully teach in the PLC, a job that often falls to the principal or other school leaders.

This is complex and sophisticated leadership work whether one is a teacher leader, school principal, or district leader. If leaders do not understand this level of complexity, they run the risk of glomming onto structures and processes such as PLCs without giving careful consideration of the role of expertise – and more important, not knowing how to create conditions so that group and individual expertise can be developed in the service of improved teaching practice (Fink & Markholt, 2011, p. 323).

Participating in a PLC requires teachers and principals to be open and involved with their colleagues in the learning process. Teachers are better at facilitating public practice and critical feedback with their students than with each other (Fink & Markholt, 2011). Encouraging them to participate in a PLC can be intimidating, but in time they grow more comfortable and understand the added value (Henderson, 2008). When teachers learn with their colleagues, new programs or policies are less likely to be viewed as top-down mandates that discourage teachers from improving their own practice (Van Tassell, 2014). Collaborative school based professional learning leverages teachers’ expertise and supports and encourages their participation in school

leadership. It also includes teachers who are not formal teacher-leaders and might otherwise not have an opportunity to participate.

As organizations, schools have an advantage over other industries, as their followers, teachers, have similar training, skill, and experience to the leader. Capitalizing on these strengths, principals can create exceptionally strong organizations. Conversely, failing to tap into these talents and leading alone, or with only a small group, teachers are likely to eventually lose interest and the ability to contribute. School leaders must attend to these factors as they attempt to share leadership functions with followers.

Distributed Leadership in Practice. Distributed leadership practices create schools that allow principals to prioritize crucial school matters, focus more on leading versus managing, identify teachers with expertise to assume leadership roles, and build a professional culture that promotes organizational success. As Gronn (2002) identifies, schools “are known to rely increasingly on teams in order to cope with the intensification of school administrators’ work that has accompanied the global-wide trend to site-based devolution” (p.428). The change in work responsibilities has also shifted the power structure in many schools, as it has in other industries, allowing for more equity among school personnel and forcing change. “In our federal system of shared power, hierarchical strategies based on assumptions of centralized authority are simply inadequate in promoting change” (Murphy, 1968, p. 35). Bolman and Deal (2008) describe additional benefits of “organizational democracy” (p.156) as promoting egalitarianism through reducing symbolic status differences and promoting inclusion of diverse groups. Distributing leadership functions to teachers provides them a more active role in school governance and allows for perspectives on matters of their expertise.

Principals working in such systems, especially those trained to appear strong, also must believe in and demonstrate public practice and critical feedback (Fink & Markholt, 2011). When teachers believe that a principal is genuine about sharing leadership and power, they will be more likely to buy-in (Weiss & Cambone, 1994). Principals also must trust and validate the work of their leadership teams, teacher leaders, and faculty's work in PLCs. This relational trust leads to school cultures with followers who feel a greater sense of purpose, are more committed to their professional community, and who are willing take risks (Robinson, 2011).

When you ask people about what it is like being part of a great team, what is most striking is the meaningfulness of the experience. People talk about being part of something larger than themselves, of being connected, of being generative. It becomes quite clear that, for many, their experiences as part of truly great teams stand out as singular periods of life lived to the fullest. (Senge, 1990, p.12)

Principals who need support for new initiatives, whether their own or from external sources, benefit from a system that promotes collaboration. It may take longer and involve more disagreement and compromise, but the ultimate result belongs to everyone. A longitudinal study of shared versus traditional decision-making in 12 public high schools revealed that the teachers in shared decision-making schools had difficulty transitioning to a democratic style of decision-making; however, they ultimately accepted the decisions made in the schools. Conversely, the decisions made in the traditional leadership schools more often left teachers angry and bitter (Weiss & Cambone, 1994). Collaborative school governance models require more input and effort on behalf of teachers, but ultimately benefit schools by easing the burdens principals face and engaging teachers in the leadership process.

Angela Thody (2003) argues that school leaders in a traditional paradigm are viewed as saviors, often resulting in overburdened and unsuccessful principals who often disappoint their constituencies, leading to burnout and principals leaving the profession. Another unintended

consequence of placing too much responsibility for school success on the principal is the resultant lack of involvement of the teaching faculty. Gemmill and Oakley (1992) extend concerns about overemphasizing solo leadership, creating “learned helplessness” among followers (p. 115) who “escape responsibility for their own actions or inactions” and become free from taking initiative and risks” (p. 119). These followers become “intellectually and emotionally deskilled” (p. 119). Conceptualizing and sharing followership theory with teachers and how they factor into a school’s organizational leadership is a critical component in the process of truly engaging them in the leadership process.

The future of leadership appears to reflect the changing nature of learning. Twenty-first century learning involves creative problem solving, collaboration, innovation, presentation, and the use of technology (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). This is a vastly different education model than teacher-as-classroom-expert. Teachers’ work with students more as partners in learning, as new models of leadership similarly have principals working with teachers. The future role of principals in shared models appears to be more of visionary, teacher, and facilitator. Lieberman and Miller (2004) make a strong case for the future of teacher leaders in schools. “Our study of teacher leadership imbues us with hope; it helps us envision a future in which teachers lead toward more democratic and enlightened schooling” (pp. 421-422).

More community involvement in schools also appears to be the future of shared leadership. This is already occurring in NYC public schools and Molly Gordon and Karen Seashore Louis (2011) found that participatory and collective leadership structures relate to increases in student learning. Their analysis shows that shared relationships are significantly related to student achievement (p. 363).

These results show that in schools where parents are influential and where principals share leadership with teachers and parents, there is more parent involvement and thus

higher student math achievement. In other words, in schools with democratic collective leadership practices that include parents in influential positions, student achievement is higher. (pp. 363-364)

What is the future of the building level principal if everyone else has a share in leadership and decision-making? Principals will be the key to holding it all together. Michael Fullan, quoted in Leech and Fulton (2008), states that “all major research on innovation and school effectiveness shows that the principal strongly influences the likelihood of change” (p. 634). Leech and Fulton add that “other studies focusing on shared decision making and restructuring identified the school principal as the key player in all such efforts. Therefore, it is vitally important to explore the role of the principal in shared decision making” (p. 634). These principals will not sit at the top of the school’s hierarchical pyramid but be the center of a web that includes many more constituencies than today, including online educators who may be across the globe.

Milli Pierce, former director of The Principal Center at Harvard University sums up the necessity for shared leadership. “If principals are expected to do it all we can be assured of mediocre performance, not because they aren’t capable but because we have asked them to be superhuman” (Pierce & Stapleton, 2003, pp. 6-7). Mediocre leadership leads to mediocre teachers and schools and ultimately underserved students.

Followership Theory

Practices that distribute leadership broadly downward in organizations change a paradigm that historically disregarded followers. Involving followers in leadership extends shared models, making them more inclusive and collaborative. Followership theory views followers not as opposite of leaders, but as participants in leadership, moving organizations toward mission driven goals. What distinguishes followership theory from other leadership theories is the focus

on the followers themselves, their attitudes and behaviors, and contributions to organizations (Carsten et al., 2010; Kelley, 1992; Pearce & Conger, 2003).

Followership roots trace to the 1920s in the fields of sociology and psychology and lectures by Radcliff College Professor Mary Parker Follett, and particularly in the 1950s when theories of social exchange, small groups, and attribution became popular and scholars began examining relationships between leaders and subordinates (Baker, Stites-Doe, Mathis, & Rosenbach, 2014). Harvard University Business School professor Abraham Zaleznick was one of the first scholars to study followers, whom he called subordinates (Kellerman, 2008). In *The Dynamics of Subordinacy* (1965), Zaleznick analyzes subordinates' inner conflicts as they manage their roles. He paints a negative picture of people working in subordinate roles and argues that their problems result from inner tensions, tracing to childhood. Zaleznick generally blames subordinates for their struggles, and questions how superiors can "help minimize these conflicts and aid his subordinate in their efforts to grow and mature" (129). This understanding of followers is vastly different than modern subordinate-superior relationships.

The term followership did not gain traction as an independent concept until Robert Kelley's article *In Praise of Followers* (1988) was published in the Harvard Business Review along with his subsequent book *The Power of Followership* (1992). Widely known as the founder of the modern conception of followership, Kelley challenged the "myth of leadership" as a "romanticized illusion" (pp. 16-17) that is unlikely to be actualized by any one person and describes numerous historical events (e.g. American Revolution) that could not have succeeded without followers. Most people, Kelley notes, spend the clear majority of their days in follower roles yet are rarely mentioned or acknowledged for their work.

A followership construct examines leadership from the roles of the led, not as subordinates *per se* but as integral factors in the leadership and success of an organization¹. Kelley describes the seemingly opposing roles as more synergistic than separate, more interchangeable than cast-conscious, and dialectic, relying on each other for meaning and existence (Drucker, 1996). Burns (2003) calls this relationship between leaders and follower the Burns Paradox: who is the leader and who is the follower? Kelley (1992) offers a different definition of leadership as *someone who can attract and retain followers* (emphasis in original) (p. 46). *The Power of Followership* was clearly Kelley's attempt to turn the tables on traditional conceptions of leadership, not because he believes leadership or leaders unimportant, but by showing its challenges without strong followership.

Since then, others have liberally cited Kelley's original work as a basis for their own. Followership scholars Ira Chaleff (1995, 2003, 2009), Angela Thody (2003), Patsy Baker Blackshear (2004), Barbara Kellerman (2008, 2012), and Carolyn Crippen (2012) have examined the importance of followership for organizational success and leadership development. A challenge for followership has been overcoming the commonly held belief that leaders are more valued than followers, and that followers have not yet become successful until promoted to higher leadership positions.

The label follower often carries pejorative connotations. In a quasi-experimental study, Hopton, Christie, and Barling (2012) found that subjects labeled followers had fewer positive effects than those with a leader label, or no label, and were less motivated to perform duties beyond their typical roles. They argue that the label reflects passivity, obedience, and submission

¹ This study did not investigate the purpose of followership but the extension of existing theory from business to education.

that are associated with lower positive affect and resultant lowered extra-role behaviors (behaviors that go above and beyond normal work obligations). Carsten (2014) recognizes that followers are commonly viewed as lacking certain traits or characteristics that leaders possess but challenges that belief in a new era of followership by noting that followers are “often highly intelligent, capable, innovative individuals who simply do not occupy a managerial position in the hierarchy” (p. 14). Kelley (1992) also discovered negative follower connotations as he began his research. Often called “sheep or sheeple,” “‘yes’ people,” “adult Boy/Girl Scouts”, and “happy losers” (p. 37). Followers have been traditionally regarded as secondary to leaders, a notion Kelley challenges.

In reality, followership and leadership are two separate concepts, two separate roles. They are complimentary, not competitive, paths to organizational contribution. Neither role corners the market on brains, motivation, talent, or action. Either role can result in an award-winning performance or a flop. The greatest successes require that the people in both roles turn in top-rate performances. We must have great leaders *and* great followers. (p. 41)

Followership theory represents an important shift in leadership study for its focus on follower influence on organizational and leader success. To understand followership, one first needs to understand followers. Though characterized negatively, Zaleznick’s creation of patterns of subordination focused on followers versus leaders. He developed four patterns of subordination that created types of subordinates. For the first time, distinctions were being made among types of followers instead of viewing them as a single entity.

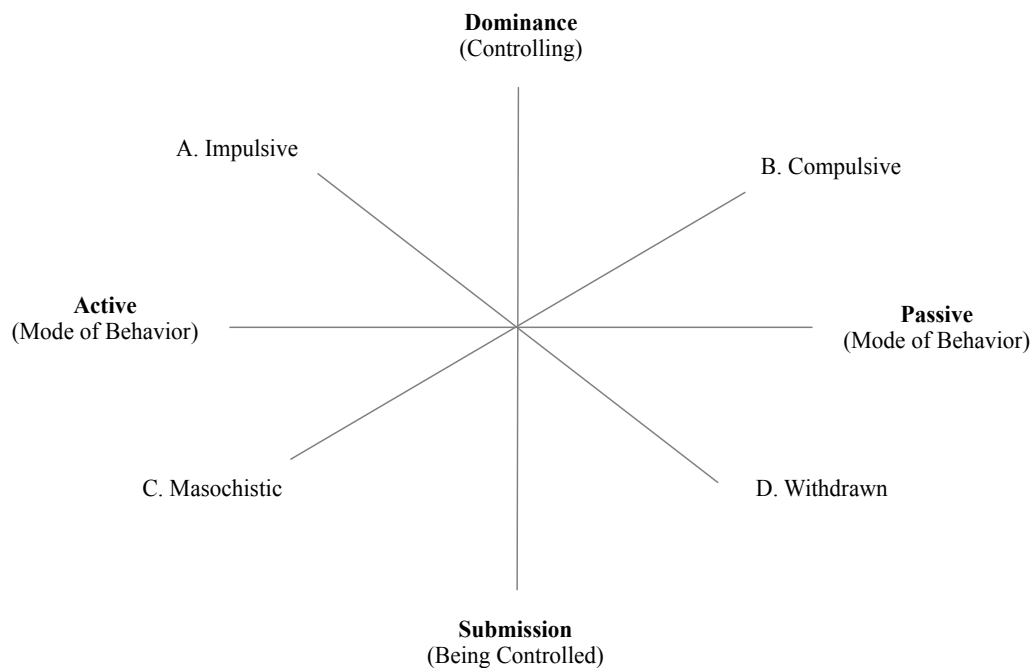
Followership Pathways and Types

Determining followership types allows people to differentiate among followers who may act quite differently from others in follower roles. Some followers may be actively engaged and contribute greatly to an organization while others sit passively by contributing minimally.

Zaleznick's (1965) patterns, now quite dated, are based on intersecting axes of dominance vs. submission and active vs. passive behavior, resulting in four negatively skewed subordinate types: impulsive, compulsive, masochistic, and withdrawn. A Freudian, Zaleznick traced patterns of subordinacy through familial experiences from childhood to adulthood. His negative view of followers contrasts with the central tenet of this study that followership is a positive and crucial part of leadership but deserves attention as following continues to be undervalued in modern organizations. Zaleznick's two-axis model also forms the basis for Kelley's model.

As shown in Figure 1, Zaleznick first axis, dominance vs. submission distinguishes between subordinates who want to control authority figures (dominance) and those who wish to be controlled (submission). The second axis distinguishes between patterns of behavior in which subordinates "initiate and intrude" (active) (Zaleznick, 1965, p. 120) and those who do little (passive). When combined, the intersecting axes create quadrants comprising patterns, or types, of subordinacy. These antecedent types provide the framework for current followership types. Table 1 provides descriptions of Zaleznick's patterns of subordinacy.

Figure 1: Patterns of Subordinacy



Note: Patterns of subordinacy based on intersecting spectra of dominance vs. submission and active vs. passive behaviors. Adapted from Zalesnick, A. (1965). The dynamics of subordination. *Harvard Business Review*, 43(3), p. 122.

Table 1

Description of Zaleznick's Patterns of Subordinacy

Pattern	Quadrant	Description
Impulsive	Dominant and Active	Rebellious with the goal of overthrowing the leader and/or the status quo. Acts without much forethought.
Compulsive	Dominant and Passive	Thinks and plans, attempting to dominate and control the leader through passive behavior. Often accompanied by guilt.
Masochistic	Submissive and Active	Actively works to submit to the power and control of the leader through purposefully poor performance resulting in criticism and aggression from the leader.
Withdrawn	Submissive and Passive	Do not care about their work or relationships with others, especially the leader. They will do what is asked, but no more.

Note: Adapted from Zaleznick, A. (1965). The dynamics of subordinacy. *Harvard Business Review*, 43(3), 119-131.

Followership Pathways

When Robert Kelley (1988) resurrected and modernized Zaleznick's theories on subordinacy, he began by asking why people follow. Leaders, Kelley argues, may misunderstand follower motivations and incorrectly expend energy trying to reach and retain them. By knowing why people follow, leaders "can design organizational environments to attract, accommodate, and retain followers" (1992, p. 50), and are less likely to lose them. Pathways (also paths), described by Kelley, help explain why people voluntarily choose not to pursue leadership roles by explaining how one lives as a follower. Paths are based on individual motivations to express or transform oneself and pursue personal goals or relationships. Kelley's paths include dreamer,

apprentice, comrade, mentee, disciple, loyalist, and lifeway. He discusses at length that followers choose different paths, but it is unclear how intentionally.

Carolyn Crippen (2012) relates Kelley's followership paths to a school's personnel groupings with the principal being the master-leader. Subtitled "First, Teacher Awareness," Crippen emphasizes the importance of followership in schools in an era of greater democratization. Helping teachers understand their importance in a school's success, beyond their individual classrooms, and including them in the process of leadership, helps build trust and loyalty among teaching faculty and school leaders.

Although schools are about learning, development, values, and ethos, I suggest all of these components are really about relationships. Authentic relationships require work to build, strengthen, and maintain. This is an ongoing and constant issue that must be a priority if a sense of inclusivity, respect, collaboration, transparency, and caring is to be developed and valued in schools. (p. 39)

Crippen's identification of Kelley's followership paths bridges followership roles in schools with those described in the business industry (Crippen, 2012). Table 2 compares Kelley's descriptions of pathways with Crippen's assignments of those pathways to personnel typically found in schools.

Table 2

Comparison of Kelley's Followership Pathways and Crippen's Assignment of School Personnel

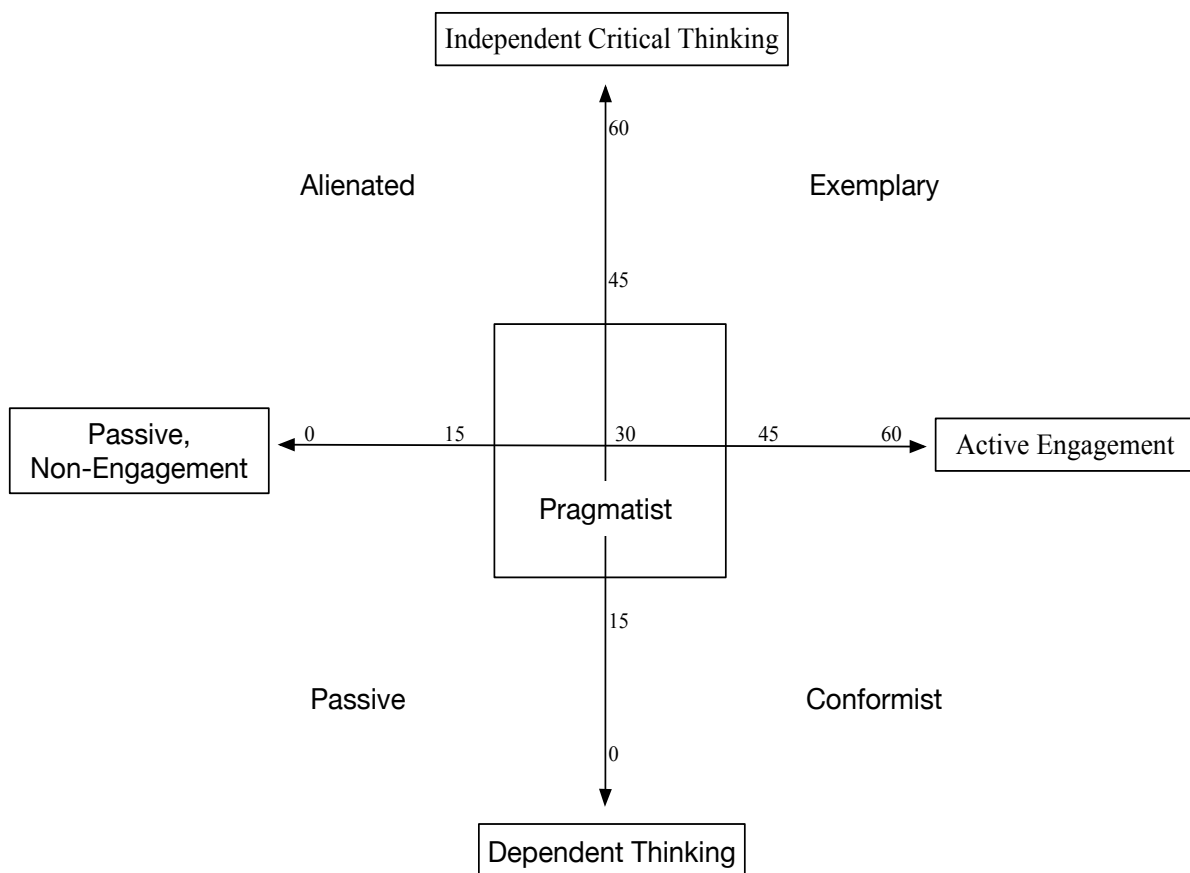
Pathway	Description	Crippen's School Personnel
Dreamer	This pathway characterizes followers who are committed to their personal dreams versus that of the leader, regardless of which role they occupy. They follow the leader because of the cause, irrespective of the leader.	Noted individuals within a school who are fiercely independent and follow their own paths
Apprentice	Followers who aspire to become leaders, they work to learn how to become a leader, pay their dues, and gain the confidence of the leader and their colleagues.	Vice-principal, if wanting to become a principal
Comrade	Characterized by intimacy and social support, this pathway envisions teamwork and bond people, perhaps to manage stress. (Example: SWAT, medical interns)	Teachers involved with committee work
Mentee	Based on a one-to-one relationship between leader and follower, a mentee path follower seeks personal benefits (e.g. maturation) from the relationship.	Teachers in a PLC
Disciple	These followers emulate the leaders, understanding that something greater than themselves exists. They abandon their personas and adopt new personas.	Vice-principal All school personnel for safety issues
Loyalist	The loyalist pathway results from a follower's personal loyalty to the leader.	Those who support the principal's initiatives
Lifeway	Followers on this pathway, separate from the rest, find no other way of life rewarding. The primary motivation of the lifeway path is to help others (Example: Mother Teresa)	Those teachers whose <i>raison d'être</i> is teaching. They are all-consumed with their work.

Source: Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow...and followers who lead themselves*. New York: Doubleday.

Follower Types

Kelley originally distinguished followership pathways from styles, or types, based on requests from professionals for models to allow them to identify their own types. People wanted to know what type of follower characterized them to understand and differentiate them from others. Carsten, Harms & Uhl-Bien (2014) examine the historical tendency to organize follower behavior into role groups, defining role orientation as “one’s cognitive belief structure that involves one’s perception of the best way to enact a role” (p. 15) based on “one’s beliefs regarding the responsibilities, activities, and behaviors that are important to the role of followers, how broadly one perceives the role, and one’s belief’s about what it takes to be effective while working with leaders” (p. 15). Their work recognizes the three most common follower roles as passive, anti-authoritarian, and proactive. Roles described by Carsten et al. (2014) miss the subtle differences among followership types found in others’ work. Figure 2 depicts followership types created by the intersection of two continua ICT and AE ranging from zero to 60 points.

Figure 2: Followership Five Type Model



Note: Followership model plotting levels of independent critical thinking and active engagement to display five followership types: exemplary, conformist, pragmatist, passive, alienated. Adapted from Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow...and followers who lead themselves*. New York: Doubleday.

Like Zaleznick's two intersecting axis model, Kelley's types distinguish among different characteristics of followership based on the degree of one's independent (or critical) thinking and level of engagement. Kelley emphasizes the power and importance of followers, holding his exemplary type as the gold standard, whereas Zaleznick focuses on follower failures. Exemplary

followers score high on engagement and independent thinking while passive followers score low on both axes. Other followership types include alienated, conformist, and pragmatist.

Kelley strives to transform all followers into the exemplary type for the benefit of the organizations in which they work, though he views all types favorably. These followers think independently and critically and do not abandon their own perspectives for those of their leaders. They provide constructive criticism, may be innovative and creative, and maintain their own individuality. Leadership consultant Gordon Curphy (2013) describes critical thinking as it relates to followership as “a follower’s ability to challenge the status quo, identify and balance what’s important and what is not, ask good questions, detect problems, and develop workable solutions” (p. 5). This definition aligns with Kelley’s desired exemplary follower.

Kelley’s second dimension of followership describes people’s engagement levels in an organization. Exemplary followers are likely to take initiative, be active participants, and surpass expectations. Conversely, disengaged followers are likely to be lazy or apathetic, require constant supervision, and avoid responsibility. In Barbara Kellerman’s (2008) followership typology, she chose engagement as the single dimension to label five types of followers ranging from least engaged (isolate) to passionately committed (diehard). Kellerman believes a follower’s level of engagement is the “all important” (p. 85) metric of followership. Similarly, Patsy Baker Blackshear (2004) developed a continuum based on performance levels ranging from simply working for pay (employee) to a role interchangeable with the leader (exemplary follower). Table 3 describes and compares followership types by levels of ICT and AE.

Table 3

Kelley's Followership Types by Levels of Independent Critical Thinking and Active Engagement.

Type	ICT Level	AE Level	Description of Followership Type
Exemplary	High	High	Highly dedicated to the organization and the leader. Thinks independently and takes initiative for the benefit of the organization.
Alienated	High	Low	Strong independent thinking, but not dedicated to the organization. May have once been exemplary before some situation prompted a decline in engagement.
Conformist	Low	High	Highly dedicated and engaged in the organization, unquestioningly following direction from leadership
Pragmatist	Moderate	Moderate	Straddles the other four followership types, maintaining a moderate level of engagement and critical thinking.
Passive	Low	Low	Neither displays independent thinking nor engages in the organization beyond simply doing the job.

Note: Adapted from Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow...and followers who lead themselves*. New York: Doubleday.

Since Kelley's construction of the dual-axis followership model, others have constructed similar models. Ira Chaleff's (2009) model closely resembles Kelley's, while Barbara Kellerman (2008) and Patsy Baker-Blackshear (2004) developed single-axis models, each based on a single continuum of followership types. Common to these models is the fluid nature of type assignment depending on numerous factors, including a follower's current role and status within the organization and relationship with the leader. Together, these models of followership provide deep understanding of the theory and its importance to leadership.

Additional Followership Models

Two Dimension Models

Ira Chaleff. Ira Chaleff (2009) adopts a similar approach to Zaleznick and Kelley's two-axis followership models. Supporting a leadership myth, Chaleff describes followership as a crucial paradox. "Even as we follow, we often are simultaneously expected to lead others in a chain of authority. The dual role of follower and leader gives us ample opportunity to learn to perform better in both roles" (2009, p. 30). Chaleff's followership styles, like Kelley's, play positive roles in organizations and allow room for growth. Based on two intersecting continua ranging from high to low support and high to low challenge, a follower falls into one of four quadrants: partner, implementer, resource, individualist.

Obvious similarities exist between Kelley and Chaleff's followership styles, but Kelley's descriptions focus more on the follower and Chaleff's more on the leaders. To Chaleff, a follower provides support, or not, to the leader and the degree of this support determines whether the follower is in partnership with the leader or merely plays a role in the organization. Kelley's engagement scale reflects not support to the leader, but involvement in an initiative the leader or organization promotes. A follower strong on the engagement scale would be described as a "self-starter" (1992, p. 94), independent of support for the leader. Chaleff's challenge scale reflects the degree to which a follower challenges a leader's behavior or policies that could undermine the organization's purpose or values.

Kelley's description of independent thinking includes challenging the leader as one component, but also includes the follower being innovative and creative. Neither of Kelley's scales directly relates to a leader but focus specifically on follower characteristics that ultimately

support a leader's work within the broader context of the organization. Another key difference between Kelley and Chaleff's conceptions of followership styles include Kelley's pragmatist style that serves as a middle-of-the-road option among the other types. Pragmatist followers straddle the quadrants as situations change. Chaleff does not conceive such a type. Chaleff, Kelley, and Zaleznick construct their models on two dimensions, but more recent models include only one dimension.

Single Dimension Models

Barbara Kellerman. Barbara Kellerman (2008) spends considerable time defining the relationship between the rankings of types on the continuum with behaviors of the individuals matched with those types. All types are subordinate to the leader in a hierarchical structure, but they are all engaged in the organization to differing extents though their roles may differ. The types do not determine followers' dispositions. Kellerman notes: "As to the rest – Participants, Activists, and Diehards – we cannot tell from knowing only their level of engagement whether they are devoted, submissive, or antagonistic and adversarial. Do these followers follow their leaders? Or do they instead, their rank notwithstanding, resist them" (2008, p. 86).

Patsy Baker Blackshear. Blackshear (2004) describes stages of followership. Beginning with employee and ending with exemplary follower, Blackshear clearly distinguishes among more and less valuable followers. Her continuum is designed to assess followers' stages to improve performance to an exemplary level. Blackshear views less engaged (productive) follower stages as potentially detrimental to an organization and urges "corrective and remediation actions" (p. 6) to reengage these followers. Though Blackshear takes a more negative view than Kellerman of less engaged followership, both continua serve to help identify

a follower's position in a leader-follower relationship. Such analyses help promote dialogue in organizations to identify opportunities or barriers to engagement.

Kellerman notes that single axis models ignore the possibility that other factors influence followership types; specifically, what are followers thinking while performing their work.

Behavior, or engagement as behavior, is the most commonly shared dimension of followership.

A two-axis model used by Zaleznick, Kelley, and others allows for a deeper, more complex understanding of followership and its types. Table 4 compares different models.

Table 4

Comparison of Four Major Followership Models

Scholar	Organization of Model	Conceptualization of Followership Types	Types	Distinctions Among Followership Types
Robert Kelley (1992)	Based on two intersecting continua to determine type.	Five types based on two intersecting continua ranging from low to high engagement and independent thinking.	Alienated Passive Pragmatist Conformist Exemplary	Types are determined through a survey.
Ira Chaleff (2003)		Four types based on two intersecting continua ranging from low to high support and challenge of leadership.	Individualist Resource Implementer Partner	No pragmatist type
Patsy Baker Blackshear (2004)	Based on a single continuum.	Five types based on continuum of performance within an organization, ranging from "less than ordinary" to "extraordinary."	Employee Committed Engaged Effective Exemplary Extraordinary	Conceives of less valuable followers.
Barbara Kellerman (2008)		Five types based on single dimension of engagement in an organization.	Diehard Participant Bystander Isolate Activist	Conceives of less valuable followers.

Though Kelley does not identify a negative followership type, the types presented by Kelley, Chaleff, Blackshear, Kellerman, and Carsten et al. can be organized into a range of desirable types, based on benefit for an organization. Table 5 compares different followership types.

Table 5

Follower Types Compared

Desirability	Kelley (1992)	Chaleff (2009)	Blackshear (2004)	Kellerman (2008)	Carsten et al. (2014)
Most	Exemplary	Partner	Exemplary	Diehard	Proactive
	Conformist		Effective	Activist (positive)	
	Pragmatist	Implementer	Engaged/ Committed	Participant	
	Passive	Resource	Committed/ Employee	Bystander Isolate (not negative)	Passive
Least	Alienated	Individualist		Activist (positive) Isolate (negative)	Anti- authoritarian

Note: The table displays rough comparison of different followership types. Commonalities include a most desirable follower type (exemplary, partner, diehard, and proactive), an average follower type (passive, pragmatist, resource, committed, participant), and a least desirable follower type (alienated, individualist, employee, activist, anti-authoritarian).

Kelley's followership types offer the most complete understanding of followers. The degree to which a follower engages in an organization and the ability and allowance to think independently captures an employee's contribution to an organization. The evolution of leadership from solo leader to current shared models has shifted the focus of organizational success to the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers. The internal organization of

schools has evolved to flatter, more collaborative and democratic environments. Despite this change, school officials lack a true understanding of the differences among followers. Thus, using Kelley's model to identify teachers' five followership types will allow school leaders, and followers themselves, to improve school leadership practices.

Followership in Schools

Followership theory shifts the focus on organizational leadership from a leader to a leader with followers in a more equitable balance. In knowledge industries like education where followers, in this case teachers, are schools' most important assets, leaders must capitalize on their potential and central role for school improvement (Louis et al., 2010; The Wallace Foundation, 2013). School success is ultimately determined by student achievement, regardless of the metric used to determine it. Teachers, in their roles as knowledge workers, play a key role in student achievement, as schools determine quality not by the number of students they graduate, but how well educated they are on that day. Schools cannot be successful without teachers, but historically education leaders seldom truly looked to teachers for participation in school leadership.

Well-known management consultant Peter Drucker (2002) argues that knowledge workers are associates with leaders, not subordinates, and that the only way organizations in knowledge-based societies can excel is by maximizing the contributions of these associates. "In a traditional workforce the worker serves the system; in a knowledge workforce, the system must serve the worker" (p. 125). Knowledge workers, he notes, "own their means of production" and that the "knowledge between their ears is a totally portable and enormous capital asset" (Drucker, 1999, p. 87) that they can take anywhere, thus leaders must build reciprocal

relationships with their followers to capitalize on what they can offer the organization. “The only way to achieve leadership in the knowledge-based business is to spend time with promising knowledge professionals: to get to know them and to be known by them; to mentor them and to listen to them; to challenge them and to encourage them” (Drucker, 2002, p. 12).

The symbiotic relationships described by Drucker changes the power dynamics between leaders and followers. Principals and teachers sharing leadership in schools not only change traditional hierarchies, but the power differences between them. French and Raven’s (1959) classic *Bases of Social Power* identified five types of power existing in organizations: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert. These five types can be organized by one’s position in an organization (legitimate, reward, coercive) and by one’s personal attributes (referent, expert).

Principals possess all five types of power (French & Raven, 1959) to varying degrees. A school leader in a traditional leadership model maintains a high level of legitimate power due to holding the top position at the school. With this power, principals also have more reward and coercive power. Though limited by working within a larger school system that determines the system for promotion and financial remuneration, principals often possess the power to reward or punish teachers. How a principal uses reward and coercive power depends on many factors within the organization and the principal’s personal characteristics. This referent power, simply characterized as power through one’s personality and relationship with others, varies greatly among leaders.

Including teachers in school leadership likely decreases a principal’s legitimate power and therefore her reward and coercive power. If principals share supervisory duties with teacher leaders, they also transfer some of their power. Referent power may not change significantly unless relationships between principals and teachers also change. Even without changing the

leadership structure in schools, teachers possess their own levels of power, especially expert power. Vast differences in specialized knowledge of education or skills in teaching do not often exist between teachers and principals. Training to become a principal may include advanced courses in curriculum, assessment, and other educational tools, but much of the training is also managerial and supervisory. Modern teachers are more likely to earn advanced degrees in specialized areas of education, surpassing principals' expert power in these areas. Including teachers in the leadership process in schools harnesses this expert power and strengthens the school.

Schools will be stronger by understanding how followership theory benefits principals as they build strong teams of leaders. An important step in this process is determining the distribution of followership types in schools and utilizing this information to organize leadership teams, maximize follower contributions to the school, develop improvement plans for individuals, and help followers themselves understand how they fit as followers and what that means for themselves and their schools. As shown in Table 6, Kelley (1992) estimates that the distribution of followership types in non-education organizations to be fairly uniform, except for passive and exemplary types with the smallest percentages. Kelley does not indicate what percentage of followers qualify as exemplary but hints at a very small percentage (Kelley, 1992).

Table 6

Percentage of Followership Types in Non-Education Organizations

Type	Percent
Passive	5-10%
Alienated	15-25%
Conformist	20-30%
Pragmatist	25-35%
Exemplary	5-10%

Note: Adapted from Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow...and followers who lead themselves*. New York: Doubleday.

What is the distribution of followership types in schools? Of the studies that exist that focus on followership types, virtually all exist in business related fields, but not education. Schools provide a unique setting for research about followership. Teachers are highly educated, have formal leadership roles in classrooms, share a skill-set with their leaders, and work in a field that focuses on human relationships. Principals cannot lead alone in schools where the complexity of tasks is too great for one person. In fact, Hauge et al. (2014) argue that in today's schools principals cannot effectively lead schools without including followers in the process, and are "entirely dependent on the teachers – especially their competencies and motivations for teaching and learning – to fulfill the overall aims of the school" (p. 358), describing the relationship between principals and teachers as a "mutual dependency" that "is fundamental for understanding the complexities of leadership and educational change" (p. 359).

The evolution of school leadership has evolved to recognize teachers' contributions to leadership as a requisite part of successful schools and serves as the basis for this study. The first step is identifying followership types in schools. Next, to truly understand those followers, how

do their demographics differ across the types. Finally, what leadership practices do teachers identify that support independent thinking and active engagement? These questions will lead to a better understanding of how to more effectively include teachers in the school leadership process.

Chapter 3: Methods

Purpose and Research Questions

This study extends research on followership into the field of education. Whereas followership research has more often been conducted in the business and psychology fields, far less exists in education. This study provides insight into followership types and their representation among teachers in New Hampshire public high schools, examining three questions:

- 1) How are Kelley's five followership types (exemplary, alienated, conformist, passive, pragmatic) distributed among classroom teachers in New Hampshire public high schools?
- 2) How do followers' demographic characteristics differ across the followership types?
- 3) What leadership practices support teacher independent thinking and active engagement in matters that affect the school?

The study was conducted in three stages. First, The Followership Questionnaire originally used by Kelley (1992) was modified for use with teachers. Second, the modified questionnaire was sent electronically (Qualtrics) to the population of teachers in New Hampshire public high schools with enrollments greater than 500 students. Third, survey data was analyzed in two stages: 1) the demographic data were analyzed statistically (SPSS) to describe followership types in the schools; and 2) chi-square analyses were used to analyze relationships among teacher demographics and followership types. Responses to the open-ended questions were then coded qualitatively to help understand teachers' perceptions of their principals' support for the two dimensions of followership used in this study, active engagement and independent critical thinking.

Respondents and Setting

Respondents were drawn from the population of New Hampshire high school teachers in schools with student enrollments greater than 501². Larger schools provided a greater number of teachers to allow for a distribution across follower types. According to the New Hampshire Department of Education website (January 28, 2016), 42 public high schools³ have student enrollments larger than 500. Teachers in 37 schools were surveyed in this study. Three schools did not have publicly listed emails and were excluded from the list to preserve teachers' anonymity. Emails were successfully sent to 2,583 teachers with 567 completing it after one reminder email for a 21.95% response rate (see Appendix A1).

Public high schools with student populations greater than 501 were included, theorizing these schools have larger teaching faculties and potentially more diverse followership types. The larger a faculty, the more likely some teachers will not become actively involved in roles beyond their classrooms. Essentially, the larger the faculty, the more likely some teachers will be able to avoid becoming involved. High schools were selected versus middle or elementary schools due to the departmental structure of most secondary schools. High school teachers are typically assigned multiple classes each day and their students often more self-sufficient than elementary and middle school students, requiring less teacher support.

The design of elementary schools most often includes teachers leading one class of younger students for whom they are primarily responsible and stay with the majority of the day. Conversely, high school teachers share students across several academic disciplines and must

² A student population of 501 is used based on the divisions created by the New Hampshire Department of Education, including 0-200, 201-300, 301-500, 501-1,000, and 1,001 and up. See Appendix A2 for a full list of New Hampshire public high schools and their enrollments.

³ Not including public charter schools or public academies.

establish meeting times to discuss them. Elementary teachers are less likely to naturally meet collaboratively to discuss students who are primarily in one classroom though, like high school teachers, often are required to meet in teaching teams. The organization and structure of middle schools are less uniform than high schools and thus subject to more variability among teachers' involvement beyond the classroom. Additionally, high schools tend to offer a greater number of clubs, athletics, and other activities that require adult supervision and offer opportunities for teachers to become involved beyond the classroom.

Public schools were chosen over private schools because the latter often contractually require teachers to become involved beyond the classroom coaching teams or advising clubs. In order to understand the active involvement dimension of followership, mandated involvement in a school may incorrectly reveal stronger followership than would exist if involvement were voluntary. It would be incorrect to conclude that an organization has more exemplary followers based on scores from the active involvement dimension when the followers are required to be involved.

Respondents included teaching faculty in roles related to student instruction and not in extra-teaching roles like nursing, janitorial, or counseling. Likely, teachers are governed by the same contract. School websites, publicly available, were used to select teachers and capture their email addresses. Only school employees labeled as "teacher" or otherwise could be reasonably determined to be a teacher (e.g. by academic subject assignment), were included. Given the largely homogenous teacher population (white and female), across the state, demographics that could capture racial and ethnic diversity were not gathered.

Survey Instrument and Variables

The Followership Questionnaire (TFQ) was developed by Robert Kelley to help readers of *The Power of Followership* (1992) determine their followership types and identify skills needed to improve as followers within organizations. The questionnaire is a self-scoring instrument that categorizes responses into one of five followership types predetermined by Kelley through his research on followership in the business industry.

Kelley created The Followership Questionnaire after determining through informal interviews that people conceived of “followership” in a mostly negative manner, providing “stereotypical” (1992, p. 92) responses. He began formalizing his inquiry by assembling focus groups in which people described, in depth, those in their organizations who were the best, worst, and typical followers. Kelley used this information to identify themes that ultimately led to labeling two dimensions central to determining five followership types: Independent Critical Thinking (ICT) and Active Engagement (AE).

Respondents are asked twenty questions, ten for each dimension, to gauge levels of independent thinking and active engagement. Responses are quantified using a 0-6 Likert scale. Each dimension has a score range from 0-60. Types are identified by “scoring” the responses and assigning a prescribed type according to Kelley’s (1992) scale. Scoring high (above 40 points) in both dimensions signifies exemplary followership, the desired followership type for organizational success (Kelley, 1992; Blackshear 2004). See Appendices B1 and B2 for original and modified questionnaires and Appendix B3 for the research questionnaire (TFQ(M)) sent to respondents.

Validity and Reliability

Of the studies that have used TFQ for research purposes, most researchers have modified it to make it more reader friendly to a particular sample group or to better ensure its validity and reliability. Blanchard et al. (2009), claiming no other validation test had yet been published, conducted a factor analysis of TFQ and identified ICT and AE as followership behavior factors. They also identified a third attitude factor unrelated to behavior. Because their research focused on followership behaviors, they eliminated four questions (1-4) that loaded on attitude. Blanchard et al. (2009) also eliminated questions 15 and 16 due to poor factor loading, ultimately preserving thirteen original TFQ questions: nine relating to AE (5-13) and four relating to ICT (17-20). They concluded that Kelley's scale measures ICT and AE and encourage others to continue efforts to validate the instrument. They also caution researchers from using the entire instrument without their own validation.

Similar to Blanchard et al. (2009), Colangelo (2000) conducted a factor analysis of TFQ as part of a dissertation on leadership styles, validating and using eleven of the twenty questions. Shahbazi et al., (2014) conducted a factor analysis of TFQ with a validity coefficient between .63 and .81. Unlike the other studies, Shahbazi et al. (2014) did not provide analysis of individual items and did not eliminate any of the original twenty questions. Favara's (2009) dissertation in organizational psychology used a non-statistical method of validating TFQ. Based on suggestions by Guion (1998), Favara argues that Kelley had a clear idea of the attribute to be measured and skillfully and carefully developed an instrument with mechanics consistent to the concept and items appropriate to the criteria being measured (Favara, 2009). He used the entire questionnaire without changes.

Other studies that did not discuss TFQ's validity tested the reliability of the items. Shahbazi et al. (2014) found Cronbach Alpha coefficients of .63 for ICT and .83 for AE. Tanoff and Barlow (2002) found similar values of .68 for ICT and .84 for AE. Mertler et al., (1997) did not attempt to validate TFQ, but modified it to create the Teacher Sentiment Inventory (TSI) to better fit the work of educational administrators. Based on the results of these studies, use of a modified TFQ appears appropriate after similar process of tailoring questions to teachers.

Instrument Modifications

The Followership Questionnaire was modified for this study in order to improve readability for teachers and the instrument's validity and reliability. The first step included replacing generic terms like "organization" with "school." Next, two-part questions were eliminated to ensure teachers answered the questions asked, improving the validity of responses (Fowler, 1993; Fowler, 2009). Examples of changes included replacing an original question "Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?" with a new question "Do you take the initiative to seek out assignments (e.g. coaching, tutoring, advising) that go above and beyond your job requirements?" In this case, whether the respondent completed the assignment is no longer in question. Examples of the original TFQ and the modifications can be found in Appendix B1. These changes were included in the dissertation proposal and approved by committee.

After the initial modification of TFQ, it was piloted with a group of teachers. A draft of the survey was sent to 60 teachers from schools in the target population. These respondents were not included in the final survey. Twelve teachers responded after one reminder request. Eight respondents (66.7%) had no problems with the clarity of any items or fitting the Likert responses to them. The remaining four respondents offered a total of 19 comments. Fourteen of the 23

survey items (60.9%) received no comments. Six items received comments resulting in changes to five items. The change process is listed in Table 7.

Table 7

Changes to Followership Questionnaire Post Pilot Study

Item Number and Original Wording	Comments	Modifications
5) Instead of accepting what the principal tells you, do you independently identify which school activities are most critical for achieving the school's goals?	<p>The wording is confusing. The question is too open to interpretation. Is the principal asking the teacher to accept a job-related task or one unrelated to the job?</p> <p>One-third of respondents did not respond favorably to the opening clause.</p>	<p>Removing the opening clause does not change the intent of the question.</p> <p>New Question: Do you independently identify which school activities are most critical for achieving the school's goals?</p>
8) Can you complete a difficult assignment without supervision?	One respondent wanted clarity on what type of assignment is referenced and suggested parenthetical examples similar to item 10	New Question: Can you complete a difficult assignment (teaching, committee, project, etc.) without supervision?
9) Do you take initiative to seek out tasks that go beyond your job requirements?	Does "job requirements" mean contractual or non-contractual?	Only one respondent had a minor question about that wording and because contractual obligations are not mentioned elsewhere in the questionnaire, the item remain unchanged.
12) When problems arise, do you first try to solve them before involving the principal?	Does "problems" refer to work or personal problems?	Rewording the question and adding "at school" after "problems" clarifies the intent. "When problems arise at school, do you go to the principal first?"
18) If the principal asks you to do something that goes against your professional preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	The concern with problems 18 & 19 was their order presented in the questionnaire. One respondent suggested listing #18 first to help explain	In the final draft of the survey, batches were created, and these questions were placed in separate batches. Number 19 became #5 and #18 followed as #10. Number 18 was modified to remove "rather than 'yes'?"
19) Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than others?	"professional preferences" in #19.	

Preparation of the final iteration of the questionnaire included batching the items to make it easier to read and follow for respondents. Items were organized into those related to Independent Critical Thinking (numbers 1-10) and Active Engagement (numbers 11-20). The four batches of five items each were briefly explained before respondents began answering.

Batch #1: The next five questions ask about your thinking as a teacher in your school.

Batch #2: The next five questions ask about your thinking as it relates to your principal.

Batch #3: The third series of questions asks about your engagement within your school.

Batch #4: The next five questions ask about your work at school.

These 20 items create the modified questionnaire TFQ(M) used in this study to determine respondents' followership types. Point values remained the same as the original questionnaire.

In addition to questions asked on TFQ(M), respondents were also asked to choose a description of a followership type they best felt described their work in their current schools. Each type's description was numbered, and labels were not revealed to respondents. The descriptions displayed in Table 8 were adapted from descriptions in *The Power of Followership* (Kelley, 1992), based on the two dimensions of followership (AE and ICT), and using the same language as the Likert choices on TFQ(M). The descriptions were ordered to avoid putting more desirable followership types (e.g. exemplary) first. Information resulting from respondents' blind self-selection of followership types may provide comparative data about types generated from TFQ(M).

Table 8

Followership Descriptions Provided to Respondents for Self-Identification

Followership Type	Description provided to Respondents
Conformist	A person who very often follows leadership without questioning and is actively engaged in the school outside of normal job duties.
Pragmatist	A person who occasionally thinks independently and is occasionally active in the school outside of normal job duties.
Exemplary	A person who very often thinks independently and is actively engaged in the school outside of normal job duties.
Passive	A person who often follows leadership without questioning and is infrequently or rarely active in the school outside of normal job duties.
Alienated	A person who very often thinks independently and is infrequently or rarely active in the school outside of normal job duties.
Other	Please Explain

Note: Adapted from Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow...and followers who lead themselves*. New York: Doubleday.

Finally, respondents were asked to provide brief written responses to two open ended questions relating to the third research question: “What leadership practices support teacher independent thinking and active engagement in matters that affect the school?” Teachers had an opportunity to provide open-ended written responses to two questions. Question one relates to the ICT dimension of followership and question two to the AE dimension.

- 1) How does your principal support teachers thinking independently on matters that affect the school?
- 2) How does your principal support the active engagement of teachers on matters that affect the school?

Short answer questions provide an opportunity to add teacher “voice” to the study in an efficient manner. Stefkovich and Torres, Jr. (2003) used this approach in their study of student rights, and DeMitchell, Kossakoski, and Baldaraso (2008) used it when researching drug testing of teachers, calling the method a hybrid of traditional quantitative and qualitative analyses for use when the data do not fit either method (p. 1228). Both studies cite David Schimmel’s (1996) support for complementary methods of research in legal education. British researcher Karin Klenke (2008) further supports the short-answer, less rigorous qualitative approach through telephone or internet research to help protect anonymity, when social cues are not important sources of information, and when the researcher has limited time and resources (Klenke, 2008).

Before the conclusion of the survey, respondents were given a chance to enter their emails for a chance to win a gift card. The drawing was offered as an incentive for teachers to respond to the survey. They were informed in the email of the incentive before they clicked on the link that began the Qualtrics created survey. Eight teachers were randomly selected from provided emails and mailed \$25 gift cards.

Variables

Kelley’s five followership types (exemplary, conformist, pragmatist, passive, alienated) make up the outcome variables in this study, theorizing that the predictor variables are associated with specific types. Based on the quantification of responses from TFQ(M), each respondent was assigned a followership type matched with the demographic data they supplied. These predictor variables, listed in Table 10, include gender, age, number of years of teaching experience, number of years at current school, highest level of education, principal certification, formal leadership training, school administration degree status, subject area, number of years working with current principal, and number of non-compensated non-teaching duties.

Predictor Variables. Respondents' demographic characteristics create the predictor variables in this study and are included to better understand the relationship between certain personal and professional characteristics and followership types. Statistical tests (Chi-Square) are used to assess the association between each predictor variable and each outcome variable. Respondents supplied the demographic information in the first part of the survey.

Age and Gender. Age and gender are standard indicators in social science research. Their inclusion in this study provides information regarding followership types and a teachers' age and gender. Choices for gender included male, female, and transgender. Groupings were created for age (younger than 29, 29-39, 40-49, 50+) to roughly correspond with a teachers' years of experience in education. Though not all teachers begin teaching immediately after graduating college, those younger than 29 are generally within their first five or six years of teaching if they began teaching around age 23. This closely aligns with choices for the number of years teaching variable, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Alignment of Demographic Predictor Variables Age and Years Teaching

	<29 years	29-39	40-49	50+
Age Range				
Approximate number of years teaching if starting at 23 years old.	5-6	6-16	7-29	30+
Years Actively Teaching	5 or fewer	6-16	7-29	30+

Years Teaching and Years at Current School. The years in teaching variable provides information about how each stage of a teacher's career (e.g. beginning, mid-career, late-career) is associated with different followership types. Similarly, using the same stages, the number of

years a teacher has been at a school provides information about a follower's longevity in an organization and how that factor is associated with different followership types.

Degree Status. The number and types of academic degrees teachers possess may reveal whether teachers with more advanced degrees are associated with different followership types than those with different levels and types of education. Is a master's degree associated differently with certain followership types than a bachelor's degree?

Administrative Degree, Principal Certification, and Leadership Training. Some teachers in this study likely possess degrees in school administration, principal certification, or have some education or training about leadership. These factors may be associated differently with followership types than other teachers. The administrative degree and principal certification are both dichotomous variables. Respondents chose between yes or no. The leadership training variable question asked teachers whether they had attended leadership workshops, taken leadership courses, both, or none.

Academic Subject Area. Teachers are trained and certified in many areas. Are certain followership types associated with specific academic disciplines? Ten schools were analyzed to determine subject area offerings and titles. Ultimately 15 subject areas were selected for inclusion in the survey. Teachers were asked to select the subject area in which they primarily teach.

Years at School and Years of Experience. Two variables that may be associated with specific followership types include the number of years teachers have worked at a particular school and how many years teachers have worked with their principals. Respondents were asked to identify a range of years for both variables to determine whether such relationships exist.

Unpaid/Non-Contractual Activities. The unpaid/non-contractual activity variable provides information about how many activities teachers participate in without being paid or otherwise compensated. These teachers may be volunteering their time for many reasons, but in general any work within the school community that improves the school could be considered active engagement and measured on TFQ(M). Arguably, schools with more teachers volunteering to have stronger followership cultures than schools whose teachers only become involved if paid.

Table 10

Study Indicators with Response Items

Demographic Questions	Choices
Please indicate your gender.	1) Male; 2) Female; 3) Transgender
Please identify your age range.	1) Younger than 29; 2) 29-39; 3) 40-49; 4) 50+
How many years you have been actively teaching?	1) 5 or fewer; 2) 6-16; 3) 17-29; 4) 30+
Please indicate the highest degree you have earned.	1) Associates; 2) Bachelor's; 3) Master's; 4) Advanced Graduate Study; 5) Doctorate
Have you ever taken courses or attended workshops focused on leadership?	1) Yes, courses; 2) Yes, workshops; 3) Yes, both courses and workshops; 4) No, neither
Do you hold a degree in education administration? Are you currently certified as a principal?	1) Yes; 2) No
In what subject area do you primarily teach?	1) Social Studies; 2) Mathematics; 3) Science; 4) English Language Arts; 5) Physical Education; 6) Technology/Digital Education; 7) Fine Arts; 8) Performing Arts; 9) Business; 10) Career, Technical Education, Industrial Arts; 11) English Language Learning (ELL); 12) Life Studies/Wellness; 13) Health Education/Wellness; 14) World Languages; 15) Other (please specify)
Please indicate how many years you have worked for your current principal.	1) 5 or fewer; 2) 6-10; 3) 11-15; 4) 16-20; 5) 21+
Please indicate how many years you have actively taught in your current school.	1) 5 or fewer; 2) 6-16; 3) 17-29; 4) 30+
Approximately how many unpaid/non-contractual activities do you participate in at school?	1) None; 2) 1; 3) 2-4; 4) 5+

Outcome Variables. Robert Kelley's (1992) original followership types are the outcome variables for this study. Kelley used The Followership Questionnaire to determine types. Each type is based on levels of a follower's independent critical thinking and active engagement in their organizations. Exemplary followers rank highest on both dimensions. Passive followers rank lowest on both dimensions. Pragmatist followers rank in the middle on both dimensions, while conformist followers rank high on AE and low on ICT and alienated follower low on AE and high on ICT.

This study used a modified TFQ to determine each respondent's followership type. The distribution of these types among large New Hampshire public high schools addressed the first research question. The second research question sought to determine whether the followership types might be associated with certain demographic predictors. Relationships between demographic characteristics (predictors) and the followership types (outcomes) were assessed statistically using chi-square tests.

Data Collection

The survey was created using the university recommended Qualtrics software. Of the schools listed on the State of New Hampshire Department of Education website with student enrollments larger than 500, 39 had publicly available teacher emails. Schools that did not list emails, or they were buried in individual teacher websites, were excluded from the study to protect the anonymity of those teachers. Most schools organize email addresses by subject area or list teachers' subject areas. More than 2,700 (2,762) emails were copied into a spreadsheet once it could be determined that the recipients were classroom teachers. Emails were sent to the

selected teachers at each school. One email was sent per school with all of that school's teachers included as recipients. A copy of the email is included in Appendix A1.

The first round of emails was sent over a two-day period. Teachers received the emails that included a hyperlink to the Qualtrics survey. Approximately one week later, reminder emails were sent asking those teachers who had not yet completed the survey to please do so. In approximately one more week, the survey was closed and the data downloaded.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed based on the research questions they addressed. To answer the first question, results from the survey were used to create followership types for each respondent. The types were analyzed to determine the distribution of the five types. To answer the second question, the types were compared to the respondent demographic data acquired from the survey. The data in this study consist of non-parametric statistics. Chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether associations, or relationships, exist between the predictor variables (demographics) and outcome variables (followership types). The third research question primarily used qualitative data from the open-ended questions. The data were analyzed for emergent themes, which were then coded and entered into coding software (MAXQDA 12).

The study also included a question not directly related to the three research questions. Respondents were asked to select a description that best fit them in their work at their schools. Each description matched one of the five followership types. Actual type labels were not associated with the types, leaving the respondents unaware of which type name (e.g. exemplary) they chose when selecting a description. Responses were compared to responses from TFQ(M).

Chapter 4: Results and Analysis

This study focuses on followership of teachers from New Hampshire public high schools and their relationships with principals. Data was gathered through a survey designed to answer three research questions: (1) How are Kelley's five followership types distributed among classroom teachers in New Hampshire public high schools? (2) How do followers' demographic characteristics differ across the followership types? (3) What leadership practices support teacher independent thinking and active engagement in matters that affect the school? Teachers provided demographic information and answered questions about their work in their current schools. Next, they completed a twenty-question evaluation used to classify each respondent in one of five followership categories: exemplary, pragmatist, conformist, alienated, passive. The research survey was adapted from Kelley's (1992) The Followership Questionnaire. The resultant types were statistically analyzed using chi-square analyses to examine relationships between teachers' personal characteristics and their followership types. Finally, teachers answered two open-ended questions focused on the two components of followership: Independent Critical Thinking (ICT) and Active Engagement (AE). The questions asked teachers to describe how they perceive their principals support ICT and AE in their work as teachers. Responses to each were analyzed for emergent themes to provide teachers' "voices" to the study about their role as followers in relation to their leaders.

Sample

Respondents were chosen via publicly available emails from 37 New Hampshire high schools with student populations greater than 500. As of January 2016, the State of New

Hampshire Department of Education identified 44 schools with student populations greater than 500 (NH Department of Education, 2014). Seven schools on the Department's list of 44 were not included in the study due to either organizational structures that differed from the other schools in the list (i.e. Coe Brown Academy and Pinkerton Academy) or for not providing publicly or readily available email addresses. The remaining 37 schools were used to identify the population from which the sample was drawn. Teachers were identified by teaching assignments (e.g. social studies) on school websites. A link to the survey was sent to 2,583 school employees listed as "teacher," or a comparable title, on the websites. Respondents received a reminder email approximately one week after the initial email. One week later, the survey was closed. Approximately 30% (776) began the survey and 21.95% (567) completed it.

Eight responses that threatened the reliability of the results were removed from the 567 total responses. One respondent, the only identified as an alienated type, commented that he intentionally biased his responses because he dislikes his principal and is considering leaving education. Another respondent, a guidance counselor, mistakenly received the survey that was only sent to educators identified as "teachers" on school websites. Five respondents indicated their education levels as associate degrees. This choice of education level was included as one of five options ranging from associate to doctorate degrees. Analysis using these data would likely be unreliable due to the small sample size. In sum, data from 559 (N=559) respondents are included in this study. This chapter presents results and analysis beginning with descriptive statistics, the study's research instrument, and the research questions presented sequentially.

Descriptive Statistics

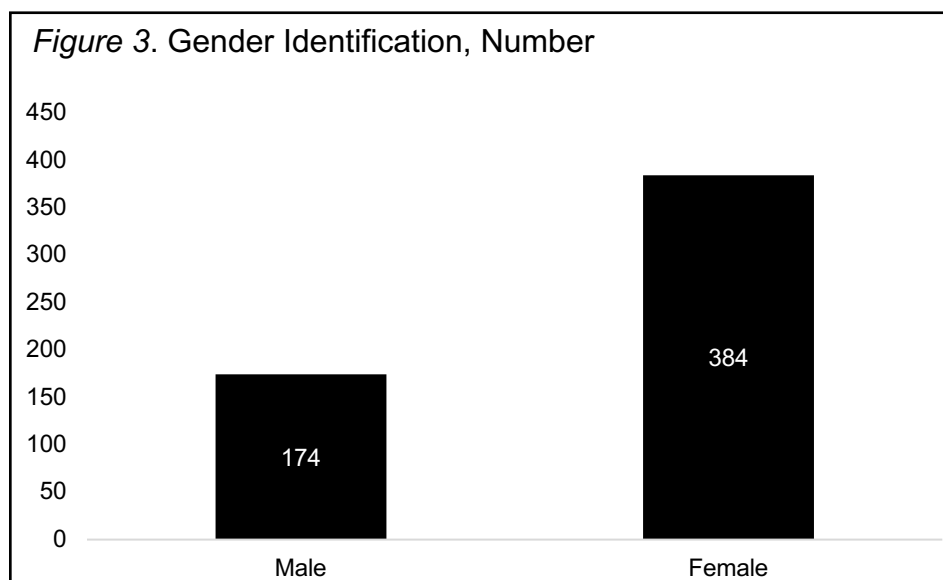
The study consists of five outcome variables and eleven predictor variables. Outcome variables include Kelley's five followership types assigned to each respondent based on responses from the modified followership questionnaire, TFQ(M).

- Exemplary
- Pragmatic
- Passive
- Conformist
- Alienated

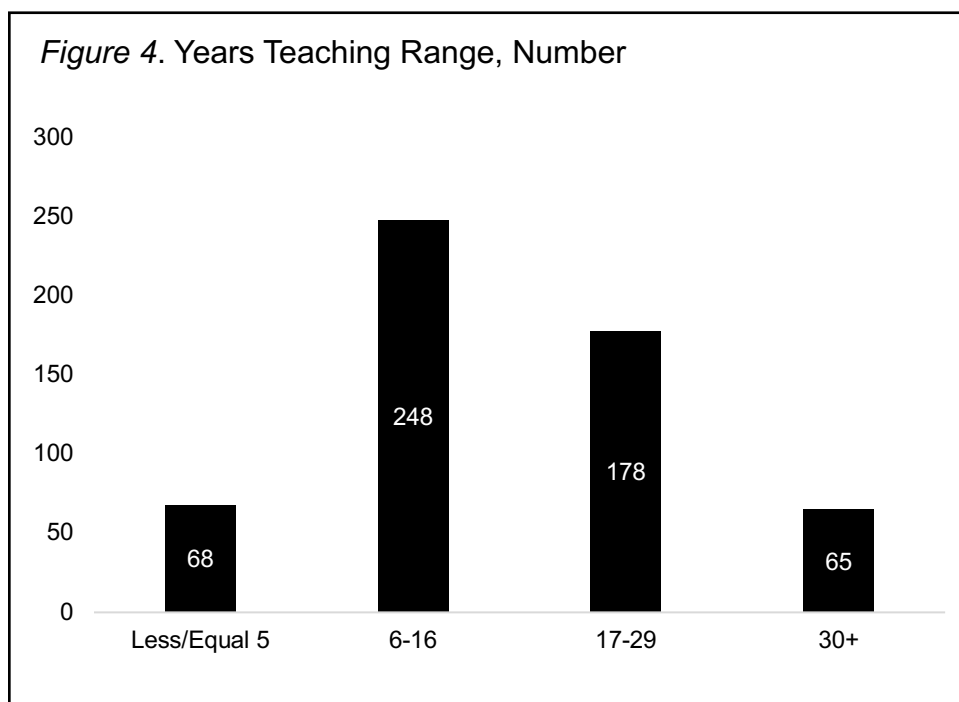
The eleven predictor variables include respondent demographic information and school related activities which were tested for associations with followership types. One theory of this study is that teacher demographic characteristics are associated with followership types.

Demographic Characteristics

Gender, Age, Years Teaching. Respondents were asked to choose among three gender choices: female, male, transgender. The sample is predominately female. As shown in Figure 3, more than two-thirds (69%) of respondents identified as female and nearly one-third (31%) as male. No respondent identified as transgender, thus only the female and male categories are used for the analysis. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, the average percentage of female teaches in public secondary schools in the United States averaged 9.5% more than their male counterparts between 1999 and 2012 (U.S. Department of Education, 2013). Female respondents to this survey outnumbered males by 38%.

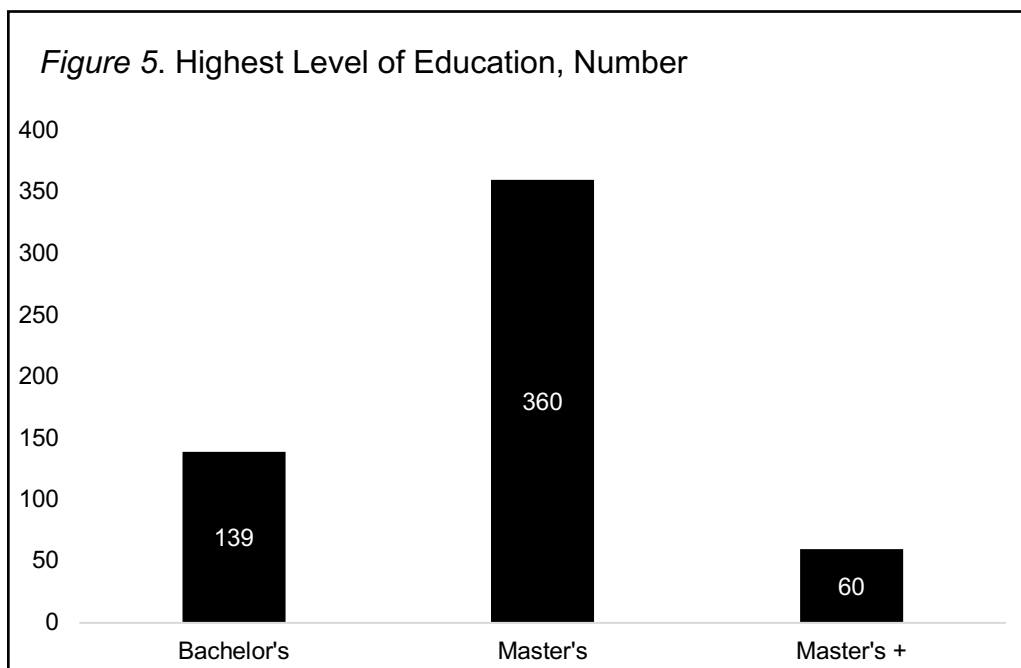


Teachers were asked to select from four age ranges (less than 29 years old, 29-39, 40-49, and 50+). More than half of respondents are between 29 and 49 years old, with 40% 50+ years old and 7% younger than 30. More important than a teacher's age is the number of years they have taught in any capacity (5 years or less, 6-16, 17-29, and 30+). As shown in Figure 4, the smallest group of respondents included beginning teachers with up to five years of experience (12.7%). Teachers with six to 16 years of teaching experience account for 44% of the respondents, followed by 32% with between 17 and 29 years of experience. The most veteran teachers, more than 30 years, accounted for slightly more than 10% of respondents (11.5%). This distribution of teaching experience aligns with statistics from the U.S. Department of Education (2013) for the 2011-2012 school year, with greater percentages of teachers in the middle years of their careers, between 6 and 29 years.

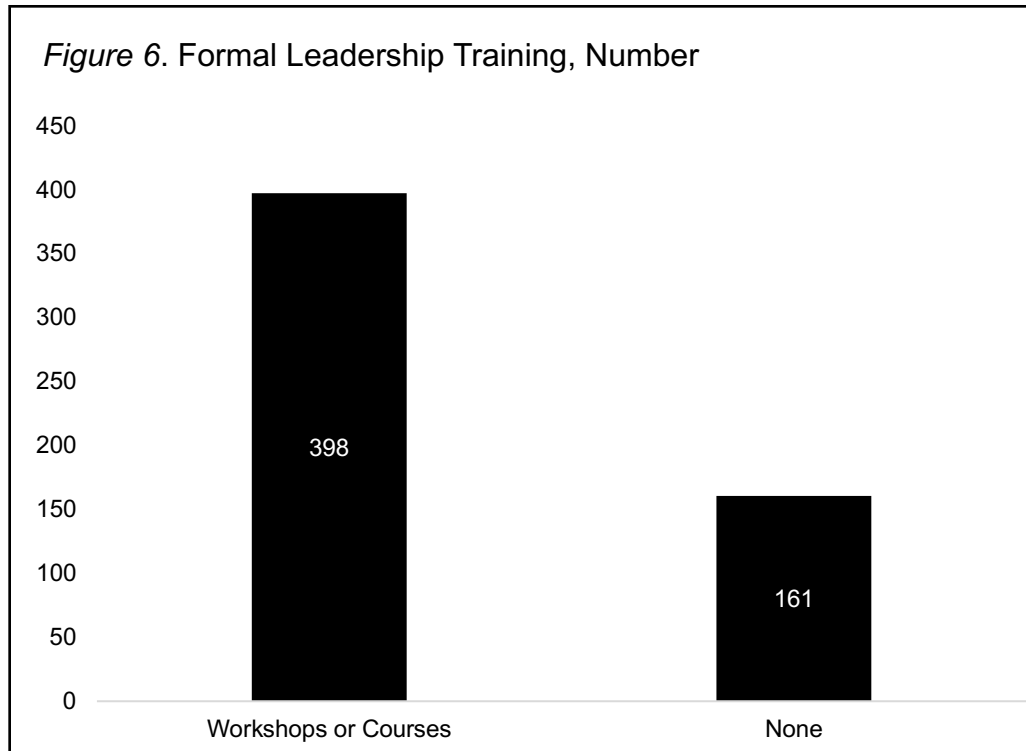


Degree Status, Leadership Courses, Educational Administration Degree, Principal Certification. The next series of questions asked teachers about their teaching qualifications and leadership experience. The first question identifies respondents' degree status. Two changes, reflected in Figure 5, were made to the education variable before the analysis. First, with only five respondents, the associates degree category was eliminated. Second, also because of the small number of respondents, the Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study/Education Specialist category was combined with the doctorate category. The new category was titled Masters+ (11%). The sample is a well-educated group of teachers. One-quarter of teachers (25%) hold bachelor's degrees, nearly two-third (64%) hold master's degrees, and ten-percent hold degrees beyond the master's degree, including Certificate of Graduate Studies or Education Specialist degrees (7%) and doctoral degrees (4%). The sample of New Hampshire public secondary

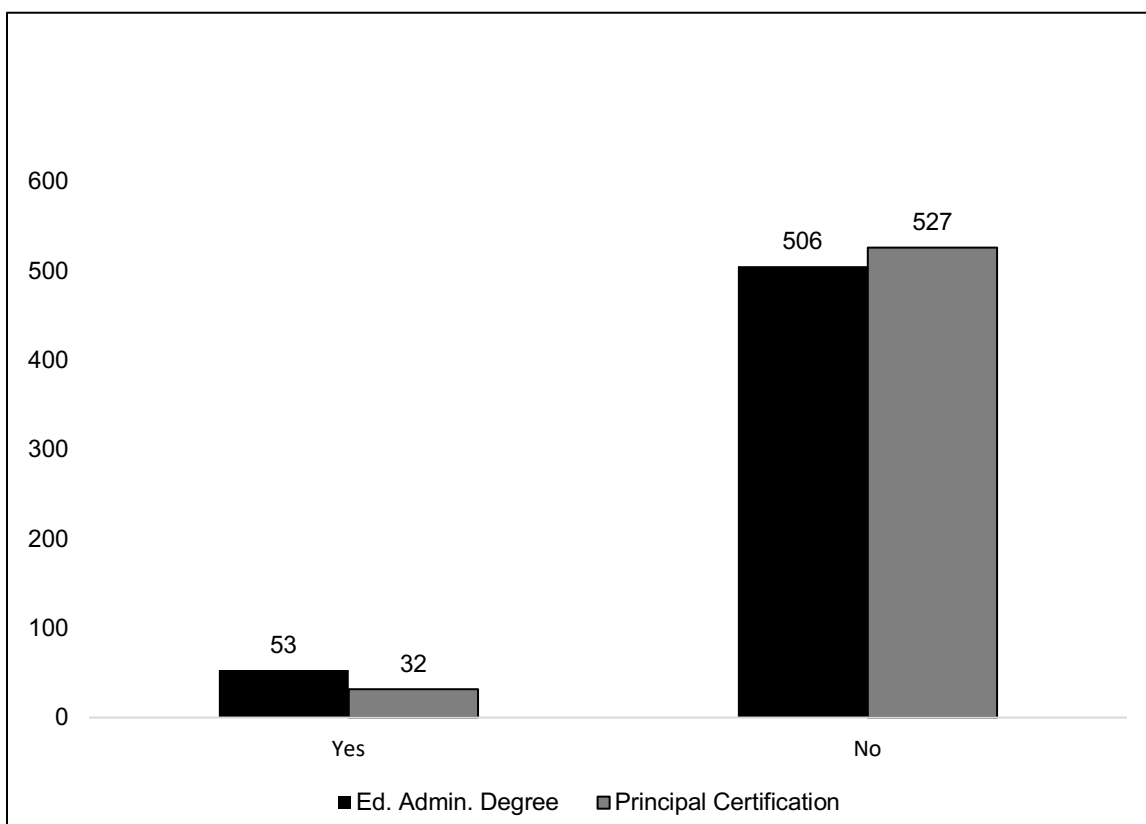
teachers has a greater percentage of advanced degrees than the national average (64% vs 48% master's degree and 11% vs 7% beyond master's degree (U.S. Department of Education, 2013).



Teachers were also asked what courses were taken or degrees completed in leadership. Followership is an integral part of leadership (Bennis, 2007; Blackshear, 2004; Chaleff, 1995; Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992), thus respondents who have experience with formal leadership training or credentials yet remain in a teaching role may respond differently to followership questions. The results were collapsed from four categories (leadership workshops, courses, both, and none) to two (leadership courses or workshops and none), shown in Figure 6. More importantly for this study, do teachers have some leadership training and how might that training be associated with followership types? Most respondents (71%) have had some leadership training, including courses and workshops. Fewer respondents (29%) have not had formal leadership training.



As Figure 7 shows, very few respondents have degrees in school administration (9.5%), and an even smaller percentage possess principal certification (5.7%); therefore, more teachers have degrees in school administration than maintain principal certification (53:32). Overwhelmingly teachers in both categories do not pursue or complete degrees in education administration or become and maintain their principal certification.



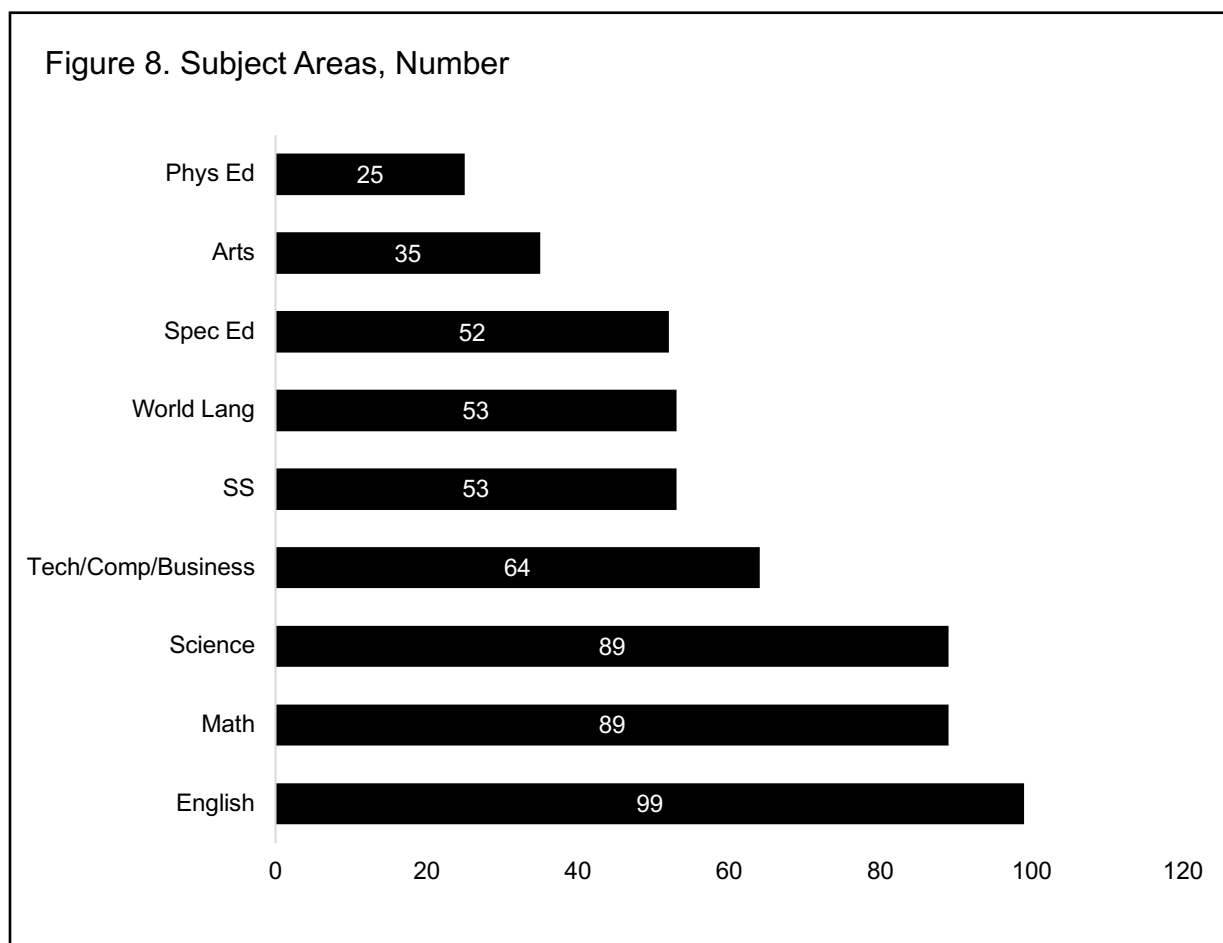
Subject Area. Large public high schools in New Hampshire offer courses in many subject areas, or departments. The departments with the most faculty typically include those who teach in areas required for graduation: English language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. The smallest often include elective subjects. The number of respondents in each subject area seems to parallel the schools' course offerings. A review of ten of the sample school websites revealed approximately twenty different subject names for all academic offerings. Academic areas similar in scope were collapsed into combined categories. As shown in Table 11, respondents were asked to choose among 14 subjects, with an option for "other." Nine subject areas were ultimately used for analysis.

Table 11

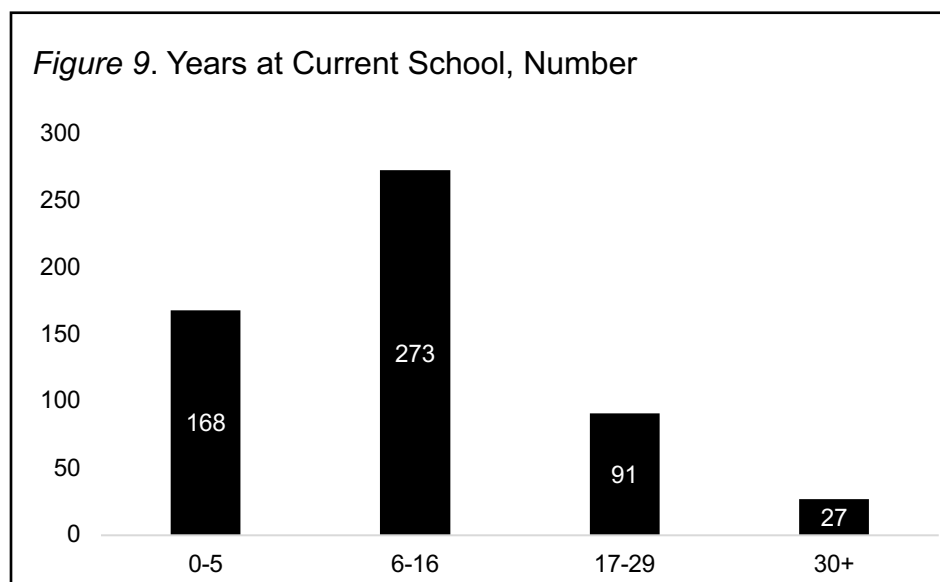
Comparison of Original and Final List of Subject Areas

Original Subjects Included in Survey	Final Subjects Included in Analysis
Social Studies	Social Studies
Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Science
English (Language Arts)	English (Language Arts)
Physical Education	Physical Education/Health/Life Studies/Wellness
Technology	Technology/Computers/Business/Career Studies
Fine Arts	Fine and Performing Arts
Performing Arts	Special Education/ELL
Business	World Languages
Career/Technical Education/Industrial Education	
English Language Learners	
Life Studies/Wellness	
Health Studies/Wellness	
World Languages	
Special Education (Other)	

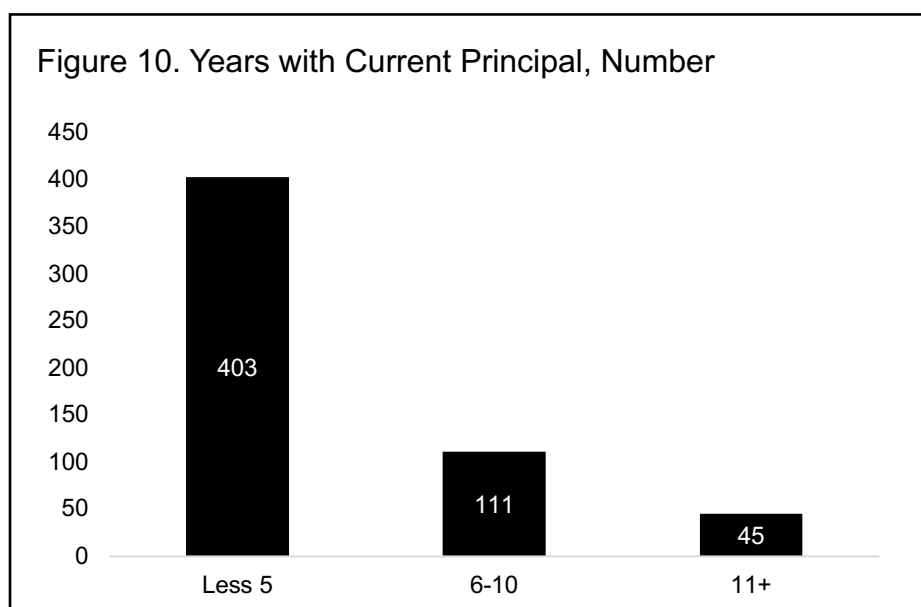
Sixty-percent of respondents teach in one of the four traditional core subject areas of mathematics (15.9%), English (17.7%), science (15.9%), and social studies (9.5%). Other areas including life studies and wellness (0.7%) and fine arts (3.4%) received fewest responses. More than nine-percent of responses included special education in the “other” choice, thus, special education was added as a subject area. As shown in Figure 8, the number of special education teachers in the sample is approximately the same as world language and social studies teachers and more than physical education and arts teachers.



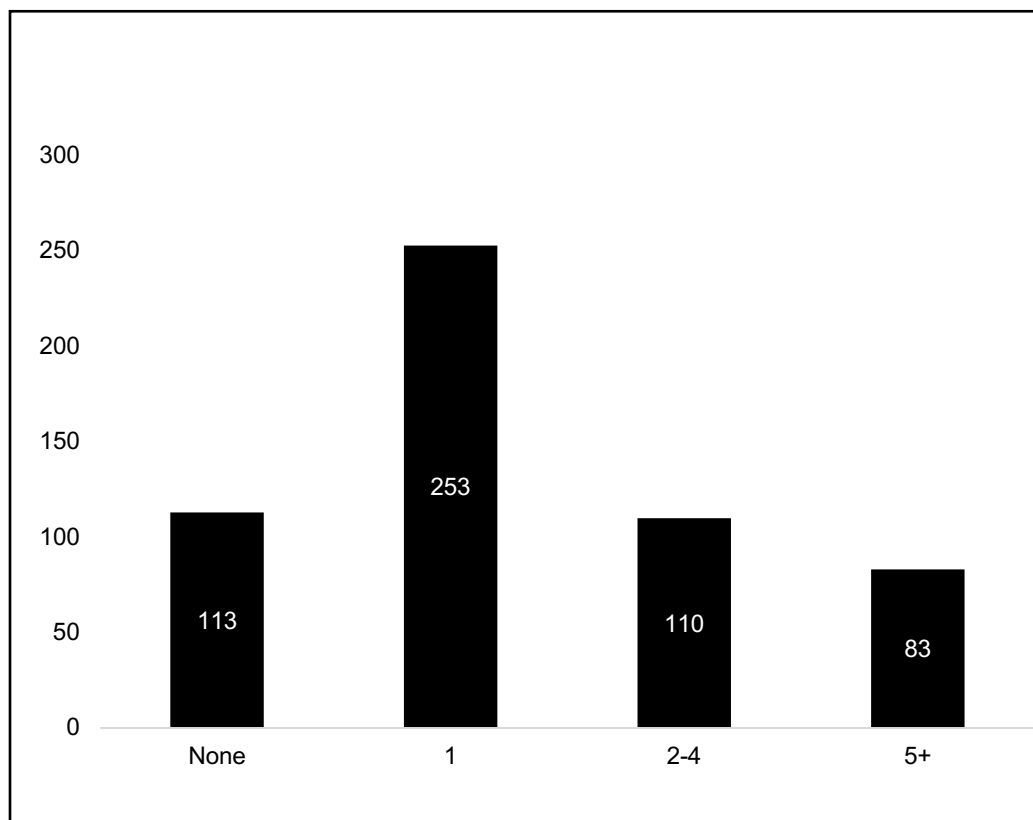
Years at Current School and Years with Principal. To determine relationships between teachers' followership types and their current teaching placement, respondents were asked the number of years they have worked at their current schools (see Figure 9) and with their current principals (see figure 10). Slightly more than 30% have worked at their current schools for five or fewer years. The largest group representing nearly 50% of all respondents include those teachers working between six and 16 years. Slightly more than 20% of teachers have worked more than 17 years at their current schools, with less than 5% of those teachers with more than 30 years at their schools.



Nearly three-quarters (72%) of respondents have worked with their principals for five or fewer years, followed by 20% who have worked with their principals between six and ten years. Very few teachers, 8%, have worked with their principals longer than 11 years, including less than 1% who have worked with their current principals more than 20 years.



Non-Contractual School Involvement. The final variable assessed is the degree to which teachers are involved with school related activities in addition to their contracted obligations. Active engagement is one of the two dimensions that determines followership types. The question asked teachers how many unpaid/non-contractual activities they participate in at work. The least engaged followership types, alienated and passive, are described by Kelley (1992) as being involved only when asked, doing the minimum, and not being a team player. Respondents with these characteristics should be involved with few, if any, non-required activities. According to survey results, 20.2% of respondents do not engage in any unpaid/non-contractual activities, 45.3% participate in only one, nearly 20% (19.7%) in two, three, or four, and 22%, and less than 15% participate in five or more unpaid activities.



In sum, the sample consists of respondents with a distribution of characteristics similar to high school teachers nationwide, but with a few exceptions. More female teachers and those with advanced degrees exist in this sample than is reflected in data reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (U.S. Department of Education, 2013). Similarities exist between the national data set and years of teaching and subject area representation, with more than 75% teachers in the sample in the middle years of their careers, between six and 30 years, and more respondents teaching core subjects including English and science. Nearly 90% of teachers in the sample have worked at their current schools for five or more years, but 72% have worked with their current principals for less than five years, indicating that many of the principals in the sampled schools are new within the last five years. Finally, nearly 80% of sampled teachers are involved with activities not required by their contracts, with more than one-third reportedly involved with two or more activities. Information about the respondents was gathered in the first part of the research questionnaire. Once completed, respondents completed the modified followership questionnaire (TFQ(M)).

The Survey Instrument

The survey instrument TFQ(M) provides information in three ways: scores to individual items, overall values for each dimension, and followership types. Individual items provide specific information about respondents' work, including the extent to which they raise questions and challenges, their commitment to the organization, their job performance, collaboration with colleagues, and their working relationship with leaders. Dimension scores provide comparative information about teachers' ICT and AE, and types provide a tool to understand teachers' roles as followers in their schools.

This study employed a modified version of TFQ, the most frequently used instruments to measure followership and determine types (Nicolet, 2014). Kelley (1992) developed TFQ based on his theory that followership consists of two dimensions, independent critical thinking (ICT) and active engagement (AE). He created ten questions each for ICT and AE used to determine a follower's type. The individual items are scored from zero to six, with six being the most exemplary and preferred value. Participants do not see point values, but choose from never (0 points), rarely (1 point), infrequently (2 points), occasionally (3 points), often (4 points), very often (5 points), and almost always (6 points). Each dimension totals a possible 60 points. Scores between 40 and 60 points on each dimension fall in the preferred exemplary range. Both dimensions of Kelley's followership model are valued equally. A respondent's score for each dimension can be plotted on two intersecting axes to determine one of five followership types (see Figure 12).

The study found sharp differences between respondents' mean scores for ICT (36.8) and AE (50.0) and differences between individual items that asked teachers generally about their work and specifically their work with principals. Tables 12 and 13 show mean values for each item of ICT and AE. The ICT items concentrate on teachers' personal and internal thoughts and beliefs about their work. AE items focus on teachers' physical work and commitment at their current schools. Scores reveal that teachers, on average, *occasionally* (3.68) think independently about their work, but *very often* (5.0) engage in their work according to responses from TFQ(M) questions.

Seven ICT items (1-5, 7 & 8) ask teachers about their personal independent thinking, that they may or may not share with others. Only three items (6, 9, 10) directly ask teachers to what extent they express differences of opinion with their principals or challenge their principals'

decisions, a form of conflict. These items received lower average scores (2.5 to 4.2) than the other items. Though the data does not indicate why teachers may be reluctant to openly differ with, the lower scores raise questions about the interaction between relationships and conflict in a leadership and power structure that formally positions leaders above followers. The length of time teachers have worked with principals does not seem to affect the responses. Mean scores for all choices (5 years or less, 6-10 years, and 11+ years) are the same (2.6), indicating that the action of expressing disagreement with the leader may contribute to the lower scores versus the influence of a relationship between teachers and principals. The data does not indicate whether teachers would be more willing to express differences with leadership in a more collaborative versus vertically hierarchical structure. Table 12 displays individual mean item values for the ICT dimension.

Table 12

Mean Values of Individual ICT Items

Independent Critical Thinking	Mean
1. Does teaching consistently fulfill a goal that is important for you?	4.7
2. Are you self-reflective about your strengths and weaknesses?	5.0
3. Do you independently think up ideas that will contribute significantly to the school's goals?	3.8
4. Do you independently identify which school activities are most critical for achieving the school's goals?	3.5
5. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than others?	5.0
6. Do you help your principal see the pros and cons of ideas?	2.7
7. Do you internally (within yourself) question the principal's ideas?	3.4
8. When problems at school arise, do you go to the principal first?	3.9
9. Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean they differ from your principal?	2.8
10. If the principal asks you to do something that goes against your professional preferences, do you say "no"?	2.2
ICT Individual Item Mean	4.1 (3.68)

Note: Item mean values have been rounded from original values. The dimension mean includes the results of rounding. The original data mean is shown in parentheses.

On average, values for individual AE items are more than one point higher than ICT items. The highest scores exist for items that ask about teachers' willingness and ability to improve their schools and support their colleagues (13-15, 19). As with ICT, the lowest AE scores exist for items that relate to teachers' work with their principals (17, 20). The mean score for questions not mentioning principals (5.0) is higher than the mean score for principal related questions (3.6), indicating that teachers may be more likely on average to engage with the school as an organization when the principal is not mentioned. Table 13 displays individual mean item values for the AE dimension.

Table 13

Mean Values of Individual AE Items

Active Engagement	Mean
11. Are you committed to your school?	5.2
12. Are your personal work goals aligned with the school's goals?	4.5
13. Are you enthusiastic about your work?	5.1
14. Do you willingly work to improve your teaching so that you become more valuable to the school?	5.3
15. Can you complete a difficult assignment (e.g. new teaching role, committee, project) without supervision?	5.5
16. Do you take initiative to seek out tasks that go beyond your job requirements?	4.0
17. When starting a new task at school (teaching assignment, committee, etc.), do you consider outcomes that are important to the principal?	3.1
18. When you are NOT the leader of a task (committee, project, etc.), do you continue to contribute at a high level?	4.8
19. Do you help out colleagues, even when you do not receive recognition for doing so?	5.4
20. Do you understand the principal's goals for the school?	4.0
AE Individual Item Mean	4.7 (5.0)

Note: Item mean values have been rounded from original values. The dimension mean includes the results of rounding. The original data mean is shown in parentheses.

Dimension scores provide broad information about teachers' independent thinking and active engagement. In this study, mean scores for ICT were much lower than AE, indicating that teachers on average engage in their schools at a higher level than they think independently about their work. What is it about teacher engagement beyond the classroom that differs so greatly from their independent thinking? Many schools provide and may even require teachers to engage beyond the classroom, but how do schools support opportunities for teacher innovation, creativity, and constructive criticism? Answers to these questions can help principals understand ways to increase teacher's independent thinking.

In addition to providing information about the dimensions of followership, the primary purpose of TFQ is to determine followership types. Types provide a snapshot of a teacher's current follower position in their schools and can be a useful starting point to help leaders and followers to understand followers' contributions as thinkers and actors for organizational improvement (Kilburn, 2010). The next section discusses the distribution of followership types in this study in response to the first research question.

First Research Question: Teacher Followership Types

The distribution of followership types identified through teacher responses to TFQ(M) addresses the first research question: How are Kelley's five followership types distributed among classroom teachers in New Hampshire public high schools? The study questionnaire consists of a series of demographic questions followed by twenty items specifically designed to determine a teacher's followership type, ten for each dimension ICT and AE. Three followership types were identified in this study. More than three-quarters of the 559 responses were identified as exemplary follower types (76%), 62 points greater than the next type, pragmatist (14%), and 67 points more than the conformist type (9%). Only one respondent was identified as an alienated type and none as a passive type. For the statistical analysis, these two types were removed. Table 14 show the adjustments from the original distribution of followership types.

Table 14

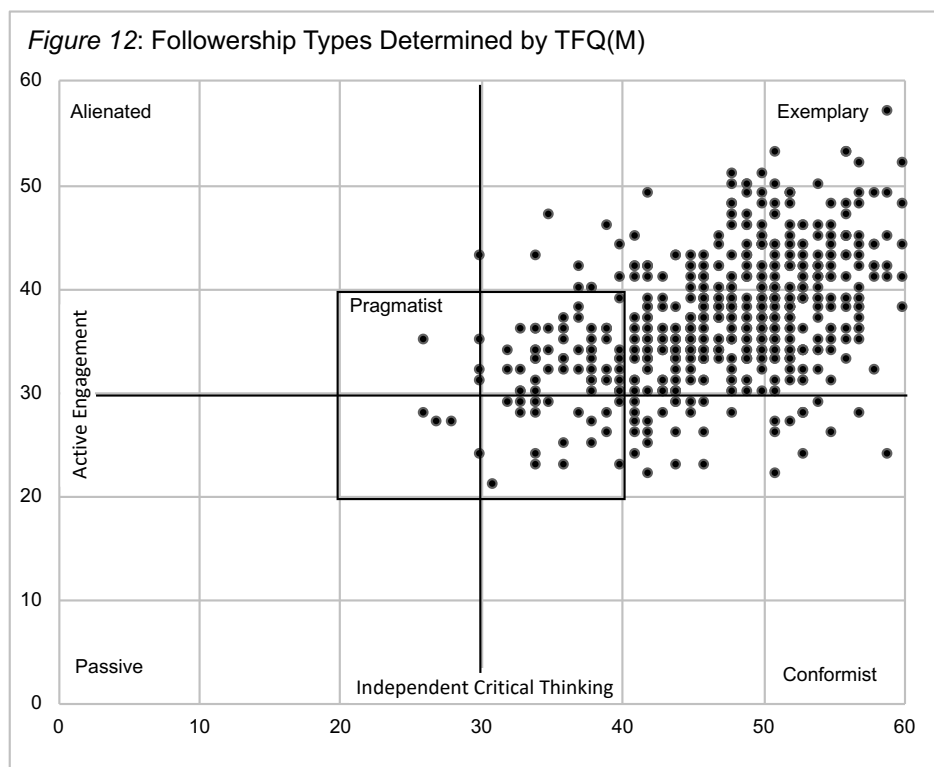
Followership types distribution as determined by responses to The Followership Questionnaire (Modified)

Type	Original Distribution	Adjusted Distribution
Conformist	49 (8.7%)	49 (8.7%)
Pragmatist	84 (14.9%)	83 (14.8%)
Exemplary	431 (76.3%)	427 (76.4%)
Passive	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Alienated	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)
<i>N</i>	565	559

Note: The original distribution includes data that were subsequently removed to improve the statistical analysis. These data are left in this table to show data for passive and alienated types.

Figure 12 displays the plots of respondents' followership types determined by the intersection of AE and ICT values produced by TFQ(M) and clearly shows most teachers as exemplary types. The pragmatist type, which overlaps the other four types, was conceived of by Kelley to capture followers who "hug the middle of the road" (1992, p. 117). Other followership scholars do not conceive of a pragmatist type. Kelley justifies retaining this type for the number of followers who endure fluctuations in leadership and organizations "to keep their jobs for the long term" (p. 119). This type makes sense in schools, especially if teachers new to the profession focus more on their classrooms and less on the school at large. The pragmatist type represents nearly 15% of all types in this study. Without it, the distribution in this study would include one alienated type, three passive types, and several additional conformist and exemplary types. Overall though, alienated and passive types would remain effectively non-existent in the data and the proportion of exemplary and conformist types would remain the same.

Plots of the data on Figure 12 also show the weight of ICT and AE. The mean value for ICT is 36.8 points and AE 50.0 points. The number of individual points on the ICT axis above 40 points is 153 versus 465 points for AE, including only 8 points above 50 for ICT versus 184 points for AE. A teacher's active engagement contributes on average 13.2 points more to the followership type than independent thinking. Consideration must be given to difference between ICT and AE in teacher followership. More than 83% of AE scores fall in the exemplary range versus 27% for ICT. If the preferred followership type is exemplary, teacher engagement is a much more powerful contributor to creating exemplary followers than ICT. If more than 76% of teachers in this study are typed exemplary even with such low ICT scores, schools might spend less time focusing on this dimension and concentrate more on AE. This also raises questions about whether ICT should be included as a dimension of an education followership model or whether AE can be a lone dimension, as conceived by others (Blackshear, 2004; Kellerman, 2008)



The questionnaire also asked teachers to identify from descriptions of each type one of the five followership types that best fits their work in their current school. This question was asked after teachers completed the TFQ(M) questions. The descriptions for each type were adapted directly from Kelley (1992) (See Appendix C). Actual follower type labels were not associated with the types, leaving respondents unaware of which types they chose when selecting a description. This question was included to examine consistency between types created by TFQ(M) and those selected by definitions of each type. As shown in Figure 13 and Table 15, the distribution of types differed greatly between the two methods.

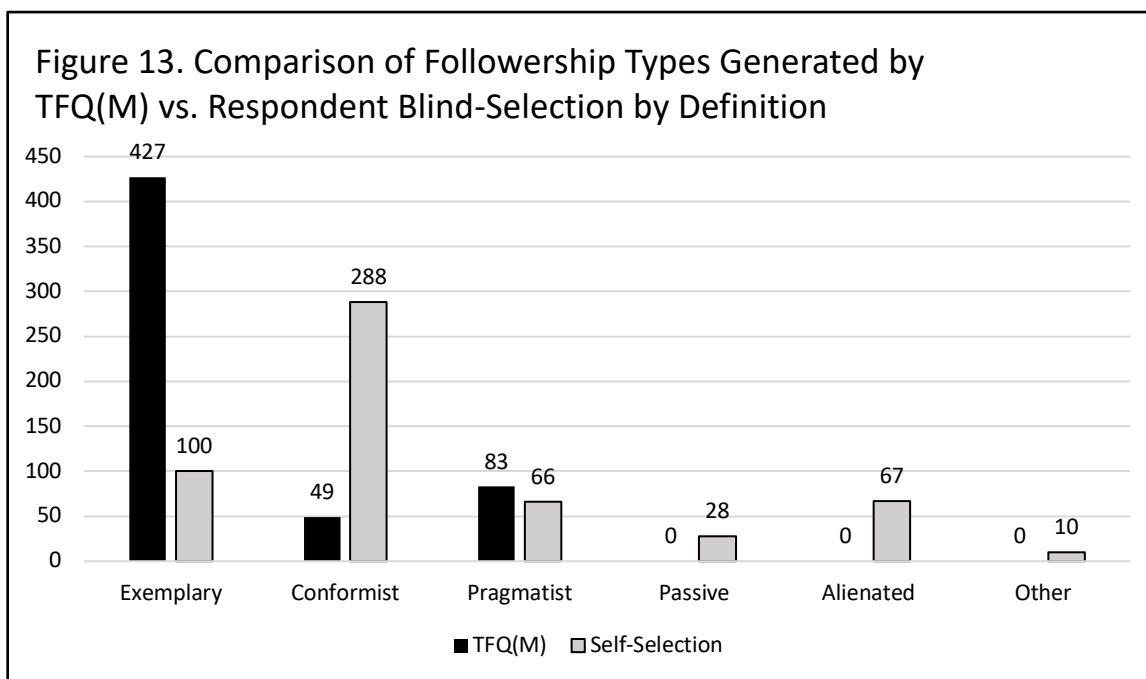


Table 15

Followership types generated by TFQ(M) vs. Blind Self-Selection

	Types Determined by TFQ(M)	Types Determined by Description (Question #21)	Change from TFQ(M)
Conformist	49 (8.7%)	288 (51.5%)	+487.8%
Pragmatist	83 (14.8%)	66 (11.8%)	-20.5%
Exemplary	427 (76.4%)	100 (17.9%)	-76.6%
Passive	0 (0.0%)	28 (5.0%)	+ 28 passive types
Alienated	0 (0.0%)	67 (12.0%)	+ 67 alienated types
Other	Not offered	10 (1.8%)	+ 10 other
<i>N</i>	559	559	559

Note: These data reflect post adjustment numbers ($N=559$) that were used for the statistical analysis.

The percentage of exemplary followers identified through self-selection decreased more than 75% from 427 to 100. The greatest change occurred with the conformist type, increasing nearly 500% from 49 to 288. The number of pragmatist followers also decreased 20%, from 83 to 66. The two types not represented by results from TFQ(M) showed sharp increases on the self-selection question. Passive followers increased from zero to 28 and alienated followers from zero to 67. Table 16 shows the percentage of types that remained the same and the greatest change to another type. The greatest changes are from the exemplary to conformist and pragmatist to alienated. Despite these discrepancies, literature supports using TFQ to identify followership types, including in education. Reasons for these sharp differences are explored in analysis of research questions one and two.

Table 16

*Changes from Followership Types Generated by
TFQ(M) and Blind Self-Selection*

Remained the Same	Greatest Change to New Type
Exemplary 15%	Exemplary to Conformist 59%
Pragmatist 6%	Pragmatist to Alienated 31%
Conformist 20%	Conformist to Pragmatist 29%

Analysis of First Research Question

Kelley's followership questionnaire (TFQ) is frequently used to research followership (Nicolet, 2014), especially when followership types are considered. Most researchers modify TFQ to tailor the questions to a particular sample group, as was done in this study (Blanchard et al., 2009; Colangelo, 2000; Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Favara, 2009; Shahbazi et al., 2014; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). Tests of the instrument's validity and reliability have found it to be suitable for research purposes; however, some caution that continued validation is necessary (Blanchard et al., 2009; Colangelo, 2000; Mertler et al., 1997; Shahbazi et al., 2014; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). Results from this study that indicate more than three-quarters of New Hampshire high school teachers are exemplary followers, consistent with other followership studies in schools (Carsten et al. 2010; Francis, 2014; Kelley, 1992; Mertler et al. 1997), but still higher than average.

Few studies quantify the percentage of Kelley's followership types found within organizations. Studies that exist in education consistently find greater numbers of exemplary, conformist, and pragmatist followers than Kelley's estimation. Mertler et al. (1997) conducted a quantitative study of elementary and secondary teachers' perceptions of followership influencing leadership. Like this study, Mertler et al. identified three followership types. Using TFQ, Mertler

et al. found 63.3% of teachers be exemplary, 35% to be pragmatist, and less than 2% to be conformist. No alienated or passive followers were identified.

Carsten et al. (2010) conducted a qualitative study exploring social constructions of followership among 31 participants from various industries, including education, in the United States and Canada. Their analysis identified three followership type constructions comparable to this study though labeled differently. Their passive construction aligns closely with Kelley's passive followership type and comprised 39% of respondents. Their active construction, 32% of respondents, compares to Kelley's pragmatist or conformist type, where followers are engaged but not outspoken, offering input when asked. Their proactive construction, 29% of respondents, closely aligns with exemplary followership type where followers take initiative and offer feedback to leaders. Carsten et al. describe proactive followers' contribution to their organizations as using "upward communication in an attempt to advance positive change in their department or organization" (2010, p. 558).

Francis (2014) conducted an exploratory qualitative study to examine followership types among eleven secondary teachers in the United Kingdom. In addition to interviews that provided most data for the study, teachers took Kelley's TFQ to serve "as a point of reference regarding the applicants' approaches to followership" (p. 115). Though the sample size is small, Francis identified only seven exemplary and four pragmatist followership types, supporting the other studies that do not identify passive or alienated types. Most recently, Novikov (2016) studied the relationship between followership and job performance among 57 non-combat members of the United States Army using TFQ. The instrument identified 70.2% of respondents as exemplary, 24% pragmatist, 3.5% conformist, 1.8% alienated, and 0% passive.

Table 17 shows the distribution of followership types by study that use a version of Kelley's followership questionnaire, TFQ. Despite differences in methodology, sample size, and *N* among the studies listed in Table 17 that used TFQ to identify followership types, they share a similar distribution. On average, the four studies identified zero percent passive types, 0.45% alienated, 3.5% conformist, 27.6% pragmatist, and 68.4% exemplary, starkly different from Kelley's estimated distribution.

Table 17

Followership Distributions Compared to Kelley's Original Estimation

Type	This Study	Mertler et al. (1997)	Francis (2014)	Novikov (2016)	Kelley (1992)
Passive	0%	0%	0%	0%	5-10%
Alienated	0%	0%	0%	1.8%	15-25%
Conformist	8.7%	1.6%	0%	3.5%	20-30%
Pragmatist	14.8%	35%	36.4%	24%	25-35%
Exemplary	76.4%	63.3%	63.6%	70.2%	0-35%

Note: Adapted from Kelley, R.E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow...and followers who lead themselves*. New York: Doubleday.

Kelley does not specify a percentile range for the exemplary followership type but describes the type as opposite of the passive type (1992, p. 122), so 5-10% may be inferred, or according to the sum of the ranges for the other types, between 0 and 35%. Kelley and Novikov did not study school teachers.

Kelley's TFQ is one of the few instruments available to determine followership types. If Kelley's estimations of the distribution of types in the business industry is accurate, significant differences exist in education. It is possible that TFQ accurately captures followership types in both industries and that differences between the industries themselves account for the variation. Assuming that TFQ(M) reliably identifies teacher followership types, the types can be used to

explore associations with teacher demographic characteristics, the focus of this study's second research question.

Second Research Question:

Associations Between Followership Types and Demographic Characteristics

Statistical analysis of respondent demographic information addresses the second research question: How do followers' demographics differ across the followership types? The data in this study consist of non-parametric statistics. Chi-square tests were conducted to determine whether associations, or relationships, exist between the variables. The test shows whether the distribution of frequencies across the categories occur as expected or by chance (Salkind, 2008). The chi-square statistic is an accepted means of analyzing non-parametric data, providing detailed information about the distribution of data when parametric assumptions cannot be met (McHugh 2013). The data in this study meet the assumptions necessary to conduct chi-square tests (LibGuides, 2017):

1. two categorical variables
2. two or more categories for each variable,
3. independence of observations, and
4. a sample size that includes at least 5 (80%) for the majority of cells

The fourth assumption, a minimum expected count of five within each cell, is a conservative standard not universally shared and believed by some to be arbitrary and challenging to social science researchers (Roscoe & Byars, 1971). Most variables tested in this study meet the standard expected count of five for all cells, except the analysis of the school subject variable.

All tests conducted share the same hypothesis. A teacher's followership type is independent, or not associated with a predictor variable (i.e. demographic characteristic). Significance is assessed at 5% ($\alpha = .05$).

- H_0 : Followership type is independent of demographic characteristic (e.g. gender).

The alternative hypothesis is that a teacher's followership type is not independent, is associated with the other variable:

- H_1 : Followership type is related to demographic characteristic (e.g. gender).

Teachers' followership types as determined by TFQ(M) were analyzed for associations with demographic data using Pearson Chi-square (χ^2) analyses in SPSS. Table 18 displays the results. Effect sizes are determined using Cramer's V (ϕ) calculated by SPSS.

Table 18

Cramer's V Effect Sizes Based on Degrees of Freedom

DF	Small	Medium	Large
1	.01	.03	.05
2	.07	.21	.35
3	.06	.17	.29

Note: Pallant, J. (2013). SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS 5th ed. McGraw Hill, NY.

Associations were tested with three followership types (exemplary, conformist, and pragmatist) and each demographic variable. The other two types in this study, alienated and passive, did not receive enough responses to warrant inclusion in the analysis. As shown in Table 19, seven of the eleven predictor variables had statistically significant associations ($p < .05$) with at least one followership type. Four predictors did not have a statistically significant relationship

with the followership types. The analysis describes variables with statistically significant relationships before explaining those without. All tests are based on the null-hypothesis that no association exists between a respondent's followership type and demographic characteristic. Exemplary, pragmatist, and conformist types are examined. Analysis of the variables is presented in order of significant level (p-value) from strongest to weakest associations.

Table 19

Associations between followership types and demographic characteristics and related effect sizes

Variable	Pearson Chi-Square (χ^2)	Significance ($\alpha = .05$)	Effect Size Cramer's V (ϕ)	Degrees of Freedom (DF)
Statistically Significant Relationships (ordered by P value)				
Non-Contract Involvement	28.076	.000***	.158	6
Leadership Training	11.300	.004**	.142	2
Years Teaching	10.435	.005**	.137	2
Years at School	9.892	.007**	.133	2
Subject Area	32.904	.008**	.172	16
Gender	9.582	.008**	.131	2
Age	14.717	.023*	.115	6
Non-Statistically Significant Relationships				
Education Level	7.122	.130	.08	4
School Administration Degree	3.500	.174	.0079	2
Principal Certification	3.429	.180	.078	2
Years with Principal	.645	.724	.034	2

Note: $p < .05^*$, $p < .01^{**}$, $p < .001^{***}$

Statistically Significant Associations

Non-Contractual Involvement. Active engagement within an organization is a key factor in determining followership types using Robert Kelley's model. The predictor non-contractual involvement indicates a teacher's involvement in school activities beyond what is required in a teaching contract. Teachers were given examples of clubs and committees as forms of non-contractual involvement. Forty-five percent of respondents claimed to participate in one non-contractual activity, followed by zero activities (20%), two to four activities (19.6%), and five or more activities (14.8%). In sum, nearly 80% (79.8%) of teachers were involved with at least one activity at their schools in addition to what is required by contract.

Within the three followership types identified by the survey, three-quarters of respondents (76%) were identified as exemplary, fifteen percent (14.8%) pragmatist, and nine percent (8.8%) conformist. Within the exemplary category, 204 teachers (65.5%) participated in more than one activity where 193 should be expected. Ninety-six teachers (22.5%), versus 84 expected, participated in two-to-four activities. Only 53 teachers (12.4%) classified as exemplary followers participated in five or more activities, where 63 would be expected, but 74 (17%) did not participate in any non-contractual activities, where 86 would be expected. The actual counts within the exemplary followership type differed from the expected counts by at least 10, with greater actual counts for one and two to four activities, and lower actual counts for zero and five plus activities.

Similar results existed for the conformist and pragmatist types, with differences between expected and actual counts ranging from 1.6 to 9.3 points. Both had greater than expected counts of zero activities, including 17 conformist types and 22 pragmatist types participating in zero activities (versus 9.9 and 16.8 expected, respectively). Conformist and pragmatist followership

types had lower than expected counts of one and 2-4 activities, and greater than expected counts of five plus activities. It is counterintuitive that these followership types that require high or medium level of engagement would not be associated with at least one non-contractual activity. Combined, 39 pragmatist and conformist followers responded that they participate in zero additional activities at school where 26.7 should be expected.

These results are significant ($\chi^2 = 28.08$, $df = 6$, $p < .000$), thus the null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a statistically significant relationship between non-contractual activities and followership type. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .158$) indicates a medium to large effect. The non-contractual activities variable has the strongest association with followership type of all tested variables.

Leadership Training. The leadership course work predictor asked respondents to identify if they have attended leadership workshops or taken leadership courses. Most respondents have some leadership training (398; 71%). Most respondents who had some leadership training are associated with the exemplary followership type (319; 80%), and the fewest with conformist followership type (31; 8%).

More respondents identified as exemplary followers than expected have some leadership training (actual 319, expected 304). Fewer than expected pragmatist followers (actual 48, expected 60) have some leadership training. Actual and expected counts for conformist types are similar (actual 31, expected 35). The differences between actual and expected counts for exemplary and pragmatist followership types indicates that a relationship exists between leadership training and followership type. In general, more leadership training is associated with the exemplary followership type than the pragmatist and conformist types. These results were significant ($\chi^2 = 11.300$, $df = 2$, $p = .004$), thus the null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that

there is a statistically significant relationship between leadership training range and followership type. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .142$) indicates a small to medium effect.

Years Teaching. The number of years teaching predictor consists of four-year ranges: up to five years, 6-16 years, 17-29 years, and 30 or more years. Nearly 45% of respondents have taught between 6 and 16 years. Combined, years teaching between 6 and 29 years comprise three-quarters of respondents. Approximately 24% of respondents have taught fewer than five (12%) or more than 30 years (11.6%). For all teachers with less than 17 years of experience, fewer than expected were identified as exemplary teachers, 226 to 241. In the same group, more teachers than the expected number are categorized as pragmatist and conformist followers. More than 80% of teachers with 17 or more years of experience were typed as exemplary, exceeding the expected count by 15 respondents (201 to 186). Nearly 12% of these veteran teachers are categorized as pragmatist followers, but only 5.3% are categorized as conformist followers.

On average, mid-to late career teachers (17+ years) are associated with higher percentages of exemplary followers and lower percentages of conformist followers. Early to mid-career teachers (0-16 years) are overrepresented in conformist and pragmatist followership type and underrepresented in the exemplary type. In contrast, mid-to late career teachers are underrepresented in conformist and pragmatist types and overrepresented in the exemplary type. These results were significant ($\chi^2 = 10.435$, $df = 2$, $p = .005$), thus the null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a statistically significant relationship between years of teaching and followership type. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .137$) indicates a small to medium effect.

Years at Current School. Most respondents have spent 16 or fewer years at their schools (78.9%). Among these respondents, most of them are categorized as exemplary followers (73.5%), followed by pragmatist (16.8%) and conformist (9.8%) types. Among teachers who have worked at their schools more than 16 years, an even greater percentage are categorized as exemplary followers (87.3%), with fewer as pragmatist (7.6%) and conformist (5.1%).

Teachers with greater longevity at their schools are slightly over represented as exemplary followers and underrepresented as pragmatist and conformist followers. Teachers newer to their schools are underrepresented as exemplary followers and over represented as both pragmatist and conformist followers. The greatest difference between actual and expected counts exists with the exemplary followership type. The actual count of exemplary teachers is 12.9 points greater for those with more years at their current school, indicating that a relationship exists between a teacher's exemplary followership type and the length of time at the school. The actual count for pragmatist type is 8.5 points greater than expected for teachers with fewer years at their schools, also indicating that a relationship exists between the pragmatist followership type and a teacher's years at a school. These results were significant ($\chi^2 = 9.892$, $df = 2$, $p = .007$), thus the null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a statistically significant relationship between the time teachers work within their schools and followership type. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .133$) indicates a small to medium effect.

Subject Area. The subject area variable was included to determine whether an association exists between a teacher's followership type and the discipline, or academic subject, primarily taught. After receiving low numbers in some subject areas, the original 15 choices

were collapsed into nine. The chi-square analysis produced 27 cells, six (22%) of which had an expected count less than five, violating the assumption that a sample size includes an expected count of at least five (80%) for the majority of cells (McHugh 2013). Five of the six cells that contained expected counts less than five were in the conformist followership type for social studies (4.6), physical education (2.2), arts (3.1), special education (4.6), and world languages (4.6). The final cell was in the pragmatist types for physical education (3.7). A count of at least one existed in all cells, and a relatively normal distribution exists across cells with low counts.

Three ways were explored to eliminate cells with small expected counts. First, eliminate the conformist followership type when analyzing the subject area variable, but doing this would change the focus of the study and was thus rejected as a solution to eliminating low cell counts. Second, eliminate the physical education subject. Twenty-five respondents identified as physical education teachers. Removing this variable from the analysis would reduce the overall *N* and thus rejected. Third, eliminate both the conformist type and physical education predictor. This approach was rejected for the reasons previously discussed. Finally, the decision was made to maintain the output and conduct an analysis of the existing data, as a brief review of the literature revealed the minimum expected count assumption is not supported by all statisticians and political scientists (Prophet StatGuide, 1997; Roscoe & Byers 1971; Slakter 1965). This analysis proceeded with the small expected counts for the conformist followership type because of the robust overall *N* of 559 and relatively even distribution of the data across the subject areas.

As shown in Table 20, three subject areas stood out with the greatest differences between expected and actual counts. Math teachers had lower actual counts for the exemplary type and higher counts than expected for the conformist and pragmatist type. Conversely, English and Technology teachers had higher counts of exemplary followership types and lower pragmatist

and conformist. Actual and expected counts for the remaining subject areas were similar for the three followership types.

Table 20

Actual Counts and Percentages by Subject Area

	Social Studies (N=53)	Math (N=89)	Science (N=89)	English (N=99)	Phys Ed (N=21)	Comp/ Tech (N=64)	Arts (N=35)	Spec Ed (N=52)	World Lang (N=53)
Conformist	3 (5.7%)	10 (11.2%)	7 (7.9%)	(5) (5.1%)	8 (38.1%)	6 (9.4%)	1 (2.9%)	4 (7.7%)	5 (9.4%)
Pragmatist	10 (18.9%)	19 (21.3%)	13 (14.6%)	(12) (12.1%)	1 (4.8%)	(4) (6.3%)	6 (17.1%)	7 (13.5%)	11 (20.8%)
Exemplary	40 (75.4%)	(60) (67.5%)	69 (77.5%)	82 (82.8%)	12 (57.1%)	54 (84.3%)	28 (80%)	41 (78.8%)	37 (69.8%)

Note: Those subjects with the greatest difference between actual and expected counts are highlighted in **bold**. Values in parentheses indicate lower than expected counts.

These results were significant ($\chi^2 = 9.892$, $df = 2$, $p = .007$), thus the null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a statistically significant relationship between the time teachers work within their schools and followership type. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .133$) indicates a small to medium effect. Physical education teachers (38.1%) and mathematics teachers (11.2%) have the largest percentage of their respondents classified as conformist followers, while computer technology teachers (84.3%) and English teachers (82.8%) have the largest percentage of their respondents classified as exemplary followers. While the overall results show a significant relationship between subject area and followership type, the cluster of subject areas around conformist and exemplary followers is not readily apparent. It is unknown if the specific area leans toward one type over another and on what basis that would be

manifested in the discipline. This is a potentially fruitful area of potential study, drilling down into the relationship of specific areas of study and followership.

Gender. Teachers in this study identified as either male (31%) or female (69%) gender. No teacher responded as transgender. Most respondents were identified exemplary followers and the observed count roughly matches the expected count, thus it is unlikely that an association exists between the exemplary followership type and a teacher's gender; however, the same does not apply the pragmatist or conformist types.

Fewer males than expected (9 to 15.3) and more females than expected (40 to 33.7) are associated with the conformist followership type. The opposite is observed for the pragmatist followership type, with more males (36 to 26) and fewer females (47 to 57) than expected. From these data, a respondent's gender is not associated with the exemplary followership type but does appear to be associated with both conformist and pragmatist types, with males more likely to be pragmatist and females more likely to be conformist types.

The Pearson Chi-square statistic (χ^2) equals .008 for the association between followership type and gender. The null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and followership type; however, differences exist among the three followership types and their associations with gender. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .131$) indicates a small to medium effect of gender on followership type.

Age. Respondents were asked to identify their ages in one of four range categories, less than 29, 29-39, 40-49, and 50+. In all age ranges, teachers tend to move from conformist to pragmatist to exemplary followers as they increased in age. The actual count for the conformist type is greater than expected between 29 and 49 years old, but less than expected after age 50,

meaning that on average, teachers between 29 and 49 years old are more likely to be associated with the conformist type than their colleagues over 50 years old. Results for the pragmatist type are similar; however, within this type, a pattern emerges for age ranges 29-39 years old and 50+, with the younger group more likely to be associated with conformist and pragmatist types, and the older group more likely to be associated with the exemplary type.

These results were significant ($\chi^2 = 14.717$, $df = 6$, $p < .05$), thus the null-hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a statistically significant relationship between age range and followership type. The strength of the relationship as measured by Cramer's V ($\phi_c = .115$) indicates a small effect

Non-Statistically Significant Results.

Four demographic indicators did not return significant results at the .05 level: the teacher's highest earned academic degree ($\chi^2 = 7.122$, $df = 4$, $p = .13$); whether the teacher holds a degree in education administration ($\chi^2 = 3.50$, $df = 2$, $p = .174$); whether the teacher holds principal certification ($\chi^2 = 3.429$, $df = 2$, $p = .18$); and the number of years a teacher has worked with the principal ($\chi^2 = .645$, $df = 2$, $p = .724$). For these indicators, the null-hypothesis is supported that there is no relationship between a teacher's followership type and how long they have worked with their principals, whether they are certified principals, hold a degree in administration, or what type of academic degree they have earned.

Certified classroom teachers in New Hampshire are required to possess at least a bachelor's degree, and it is common that teachers earn masters' degrees. These degrees have essentially become an industry standard; thus, it makes sense that earning or possessing one of these degrees may not have an association with a particular followership type. More advanced degrees, beyond the master's degree, are less common, but not required or expected for work as

a teacher. Teachers who pursue these degrees are likely to do so for reasons unrelated to their work as high school teachers and therefore may not impact their followership types.

The questions on TFQ(M) used to determine followership type focus on teachers' thinking and engagement with their work as teachers. Teachers who pursue degrees in educational administration or principal certification are not doing so to benefit their work as classroom teachers but potentially for role change to school leadership, and not many teachers pursue this path. In the sample, only 9.5% of teachers hold an administrative degree and 5.7% hold principal certification, yet they remain in teaching positions either voluntarily or because they have not yet been hired as an administrator. Table 21 shows the numbers and percentages of respondents within each category associated with each type. Compared to the survey data for each followership type, the actual and expected numbers for each category are similar. Percentages for each category, with the exception of the conformist type are also similar. No single followership type is significantly different than expected.

Table 21

Administrative Degree and Principal Certification by Followership Type

		Exemplary	Pragmatist	Conformist
Administrative Degree	Yes	44 (83%)	8 (15%)	1 (2%)
	No	383 (76%)	75 (15%)	48 (9%)
Principal Certification	Yes	26 (81%)	6 (19%)	0 (0%)
	No	401 (76%)	77 (15%)	49 (9%)
Survey Total		427 (76.4%)	83 (14.8%)	49 (8.7%)

The last non-significant predictor, years with principal, has the least significant association with followership type ($p = .724$). Results from TFQ(M) show that teachers score higher on items asking about their work in relation to their schools and colleagues than their principals. It may follow that teachers do not give a lot of thought to how their principals directly influence their work, so no particularly strong association exists with any type. Also, nearly three-quarters of respondents have worked with their current principals five or fewer years, and more than 90% less than 10 years, further indicating that teachers' relationships with their schools and colleagues is more impactful on how they follow.

Analysis of Second Research Question

The number of non-contractual activities teachers perform is the strongest association ($p < .001$) between followership types and predictor variables. Reasons for the strength of this association may have a lot to do with the design of Kelley's followership model and the instrument used to measure types. Because active engagement within an organization is one of the central components of followership, accounting for half of its total value, including a predictor variable in this study that directly targets a teacher's engagement in their schools is likely to reveal a significant relationship with followership type. The three followership types identified in this study all require higher levels of engagement. Nearly eighty percent of teachers in the study are involved with at least one activity in addition to those contractually required. Not surprisingly, a larger percentage of conformist followers participate in zero activities than the pragmatist or exemplary types. Though the study does not ask specifically in what activities teachers participate, followership theory holds that more follower involvement in the

organization supports organizational success (Blackshear, 2004; Crippen, 2008; Kelley, 1992; Mertler et al., 1997).

The remaining predictor variables, except age, have similar associations ($p < .01$) with followership types. Seventy-one percent of teachers in this study have some leadership training, either workshops or formal course work. It is likely that teachers receive some leadership training as part of required professional development, a form of engagement especially if conducted at schools through PLCs. In their case study of professional development in four states, Jaquith, Mindich, Wei, and Darling-Hammond (2010) found that states include training for teachers about the importance of leadership and leadership teams. Professional development for teachers has long been required by all states (Jaquith et al., 2010). It is unsurprising that this study found higher counts of training associated with exemplary followership types if the training is part of teachers' professional work.

Teachers' ages, their years of experience, and number of years teaching at their current schools produced similar results, though age was significant at the .05 level ($p = .023$). Teachers under 50 years old are associated more with pragmatist and conformist types, but a sharp change occurs after 50 when they become associated more with the exemplary type. Teachers with up to 16 years of experience, and especially those with five years or fewer, had higher than expected counts of conformist and pragmatist types. This likely applies to new teachers as they adjust to their new roles.

With the demands and stress new teachers face adjusting to their classroom roles, it is likely they concentrate on their work and less on the school at large. According to Fisher (2011) in a study of nearly 400 secondary school teachers, years of experience is significantly related with stress and other factors that contribute to nearly 50% of new teachers leaving the profession

within the first five years (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). It is unlikely these teachers have additional time to contribute more broadly to their schools than their classrooms. Additionally, new teachers are not protected by tenure like their veteran colleagues. In New Hampshire teachers receive tenure after five consecutive years of employment in a state district and three consecutive years in their current district (Teacher Tenure, 2014). Unless principals openly encourage diverse and divergent viewpoints, new teachers may not feel safe expressing independent thought.

Interestingly, a teacher's subject area is significantly related with followership types. Mathematics, English, and Technology stood out as academic subject areas with notable differences between actual and expected counts. The remaining subject areas had similar counts as expected. Math teachers were associated more with conformist and pragmatist types than exemplary, and English and Technology teachers more with exemplary types than conformist and pragmatist. More research is necessary to understand how a particular subject area is related to a followership types. Do math teachers engage and question less and English and technology teachers more often? It may be that specific types of people are attracted to these three subject areas, hence their associations with certain types. It could also be that English and technology teachers are asked to contribute their expertise more to schools, thus raising their engagement scores. Without more investigation, it is difficult to theorize why subject areas are differently associated with followership types.

This study found significant associations between a follower's gender and followership types. No difference exists between men and women's associations with the exemplary type, but higher counts than expected exist between women and the conformist type. Men had lower than expected counts for conformist types. The opposite is true for the pragmatist type. In their study of teachers' perceptions of leadership and followership, Mertler et al. (1997) identified a

significant difference between men's and women's recognition of the importance of active engagement in their roles as followers in schools. Women reported higher levels of initiative and commitment as well as being more collaborative in their roles as teachers. As leaders, research finds that women tend to adopt more democratic leadership styles than men and demonstrate more people-oriented leadership qualities (Eagley & Johnson, 1990; Kumasey, Delle, & Puni, 2014).

In general, teachers who are more experienced, have worked at their schools longer, are over the age of 50, and are more actively involved in their schools are associated more with exemplary followership types. Younger and less experienced teachers who have been at their schools for fewer years tend to move from conformist to pragmatist types before being associated with exemplary types. Practical applications for this information suggests that principals turn to more experienced teachers to serve as leaders within the school community and ask less of new teachers as they adjust to their classroom work. As they gain more experience, they will likely become more involved and confident sharing their perspectives.

Third Research Question:

Teachers' Perspectives on Principal Support of Followership

The third research question attempts to understand what leadership practices support followership in schools by asking teachers to respond to two open-ended questions directly related to Kelley's (1992) two dimensions of followership: Independent Critical Thinking (ICT) and Active Engagement (AE). Each question was designed to elicit responses from teachers describing how principals support ICT and AE and enrich understanding of the research

questions that the quantitative data cannot provide (DeMitchell et al., 2008). Unlike the required demographic and TFQ(M) questions, these questions did not force a response.

The ICT question, asked first, received 503 responses (90% completion rate), of which 460 were used for analysis. The remaining questions were eliminated when they did not answer the question. The AE question received 490 responses (88% completion rate), of which 473 were used for analysis. Eliminating responses that did not answer the questions was the first step to reduce the data.

The next step to further reduce the data involved repeatedly reading responses to each question to identify patterns (Seidman, 2006). Notes were made for frequency of comments, terms, and words. Similar comments were eventually grouped by common themes. For example, terms like “thanks,” “praise,” and “recognition” when it could be determined they shared a common meaning in the teachers’ responses. These themes were used to create codes that were entered into coding software (MAXQDA 12). The software analyzed all responses for key words related to each theme and returned all cases where these terms were appeared. Those results were then analyzed for redundancy and to ensure the comment matched the theme. These comments were then ordered by frequency. This method does not allow for member checking of the created themes.

Most responses provided affirmative methods principals use to support the dimensions of followership, but approximately 18% of responses for each question offered ways principals do not support ICT or AE. Though the questions did not ask teachers for negative responses, the information provided offers an understanding of possible barriers to followership in schools. The data are presented first by dimension (i.e. ICT and AE) and by theme in order of frequency in the

data. The analysis focuses on affirmative responses first, and then briefly on negative responses and themes.

Independent Critical Thinking Responses

The first part of research question three asked teachers how their principals support teachers thinking independently on matters that affect the school. Responses included several ways principals actively and passively support independent thinking. Teachers described some principals who intentionally encouraged teachers to share ideas, solicited their thoughts on school issues, and created opportunities for teacher discourse without administrative oversight. Teachers also described principals who passively allowed them to express their thoughts, waiting for teachers to step forward versus seeking them out. Table 22 lists three major themes and examples of the most common subthemes, in order of frequency, that emerged from the data describing how principals support ICT.

Table 22

Major themes and subthemes of principal support of ICT

Support of ICT	Responses
Personal Interaction	217
Openness and receptiveness to teachers' thoughts and concerns	
Listens to teachers	
Seeks out, solicits teacher input and feedback	
Professional Support	129
Allowing classroom autonomy	
Encouraging risk taking and initiative	
Organizational Structure	80
Committees, including PLCs	
Leadership team and department heads	

ICT support themes

Personal interaction. Personal interaction emerged as the most common theme.

Teachers most frequently mentioned principals being receptive and available (open-door policy), willing to spend time listening to teachers' thoughts and concerns. Their comments reflect characteristics of servant-leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), including listening, awareness, stewardship, building community (Spears, 2004), empowerment, and encouragement (Russell & Stone, 2002), where principals recognize the values of their schools and teachers before their own. Two teachers mention their principals being open to personal and professional discussions initiated by teachers. The second teacher describes how her principal encourages teachers to take the lead in decision making.

The principal has an open-door policy and has made clear that he is always willing to talk about issues and ideas. I feel comfortable approaching him and sharing my thinking. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years teaching and 11-15 with principal)

He is open to long conversations about my thinking. He reads books I suggest he read to learn more about my field and then invites me to talk with him about them. He is always focused on what is best for students, so he listens when we question grading practices, etc. that interfere with that mission. He tries to strike a balance between the big issues we must tackle as a faculty and the time we have to do so. He's good at creating space for problems solving with our colleagues. He makes time for big thinking. For example, he purchased a viewing of "Beyond Measure" for our March faculty meeting after I saw it and read the book. He then led us to discussion groups about what we learned. This led my department to question some big systemic pieces like the amount of grading and the leveling of courses. He listens well and pushes us to keep seeking answers to tricky problems. (Exemplary, female, English, 30+ years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Respondents also mentioned their principals seeking teachers' input and feedback on school decisions. Principals who actively solicit input communicate a level of trust in teacher professionalism, treating them as more as colleagues than subordinates. As two teachers indicate, this raises morale in their teaching staffs and encourages greater contribution on school wide matters.

He has an open-door policy. He welcomes feedback and discussion. He consults with leaders within the school to get their input before moving in a certain direction. He makes sure to credit those that have played a key role. Moral (sic) is good. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years teaching and less than 5 years with principal)

This is actually one of our principal's strengths. He is often asking his faculty for our input on school-related matters. In fact, there is a portion of ALL faculty meetings in which he opens the floor for faculty input (good or bad) and discussion. Simply knowing that our principal cares enough to make time during a faculty meeting to hear our voices is invaluable and one of the many reasons I enjoy where I work. In my opinion, he simply presents himself as an open-minded and approachable administrator and, by doing so, he enables his faculty to feel comfortable and confident to contribute to our school community. (Exemplary, female, English, first five years teaching and less than five years with principal)

Professional Support. The second major theme, professional support, describes principals allowing teachers autonomy in their work and encouraging them to use their professional judgement to take risks and make decisions. One teacher commented how her principal encourages teachers to take risks and act on ideas to improve their schools. Implicit in the comment is also a reciprocal trust between principal and teacher, without the teacher fearing reprisal if the idea fails. Another teacher mentions that her principal encourages teachers to contribute ideas for the school at large, not only their classrooms. A key tenet of followership includes contributions to the organization beyond a follower's primary role. In education, this means contributions to the school in addition to work performed in the classroom.

We are encouraged to step out and take risks in the interest of student learning. We do so knowing that administration will not come down on us for trying something new, even when it is not as effective as planned. (Exemplary, male, Math, 6-16 years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Our principal really encourages us to "take risks" with our teaching. He encourages us to stretch our talents and think outside the box. This helps us to think independently on matters that affect our students, our classroom, and our school. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years teaching and less than five years with principal)

Organizational Structure. The third major theme, organizational structure, describes principals creating or utilizing exiting organizational elements to support teacher input. Modern schools, especially large schools like those used in this study, commonly subdivide their teaching faculties into committees for various reasons, including discussing curricula and departmental matters. Using committees to involve teachers in decision making gained popularity in the early 1980s (Sykes, 1990; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Committees, often led by teachers, have become standard practice as schools have increasingly distributed leadership to teachers (Elmore, 1990; Gronn, 2002; Hauge et al., 2014; Leithwood et al., 2013). Responses from teachers describe how principals use these structures to facilitate teacher input on school matters. The first two teachers describe principals who actively uses committees to seek input in decision making at the building level. The third teacher describes her principal's use of committees to build consensus on district level decisions.

He requires all decisions be made by committees rather than administration just making the decisions without our input. (Exemplary, female, Math, 6-16 years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Our school has many committees that are highly respected by administration. The work from these committees is generally accepted by administration for initiatives. Our current system of administration also allows to seek such people out easily and they receive us with open ears. (Exemplary, female, World Languages, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Still a new principal, but she develops committees to gather consensus so that we can make a team decision on the community and what is best for the greater school district. She invites new ideas and brainstorming to develop a more progressive plan, but she is still hindered by parental and community demands and public perception. (Exemplary, female, Social Studies, 6-16 years teaching and less than five years with principal)

Two types of committees, leadership teams and Professional Learning Communities (PLCs), serve specific purposes in modern schools. Leadership teams often include lower level administrators and designated teacher-leaders and help facilitate teacher input from the

classroom teacher through the leadership structure to the principal. Typically, subject department heads solicit teacher input in departmental meetings and pass along information during leadership team meetings (Gordon & Louis, 2011; Lieberman & Miller, 2004). Two teachers describe active leadership teams that effectively facilitate communication from followers to leadership.

All new ideas and suggestions are welcomed and acted on at some level within the leadership team that consists of admin, department leaders, and teacher representatives. I brought a school wide issue to my principal today, unannounced, after school (on a Friday), and after a discussion, I'm on the leadership committee agenda for Monday. (Exemplary, male, Social Studies, 17-29 years teaching and first five with principal)

Our current principal meets with Team Leaders every other week and the job of team leaders is to come back with ideas from others in our department, so they can be talked about. (Exemplary, female, Fine Arts, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

PLCs provide opportunities for all professionals in schools to learn together for professional and school improvement. If done well, all teachers have opportunities for input (DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Fink & Markholt, 2011; Sykes, 1990). One teacher describes how her school's PLC provides opportunities for professional input.

She allows committees and PLC groups about issues that we feel effect (sic) the school and gives a lot of free reign for staff to develop and implement our ideas. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years and less than five with principal)

Active Engagement Responses

The second part of research question three asked teachers how their principals support teachers actively engaging in matters that affect the school. Responses included several ways principals actively and passively support active engagement. Teachers described principals who intentionally express gratitude to teachers for engaging, seek volunteers for activities, and create and utilize teacher committees. Teachers also described principals being open to teachers forming committees to benefit their schools. The major themes for AE are the same as ICT but

occur with different frequencies. Table 23 lists three major themes and examples of the most common subthemes, in order of frequency that emerged from the data describing how principals support AE.

Table 23

Major themes and subthemes of principal support of AE

Support of AE	Responses
Personal Interaction	180
Thanks, praise, and recognition	
Seeks out, solicits teacher participation	
Openness	
Organizational Structure	121
Committees, including PLCs	
Leadership team and department heads	
Professional Support	53
Encouragement of teacher-initiated activities	

AE support themes

Personal Interaction. Personal interaction also emerged as the most common theme for AE, but the order of the other major themes professional support and organizational structure is reversed and subthemes for both changed. Personal interaction had fewer overall responses for AE, most of which described principals recognizing teachers for their involvement.

Organizational structure had more than 40 additional responses than for ICT, likely because engagement in schools often occurs on committees. Professional support in AE mainly involves principals being open to teacher-initiatives for activities that will benefit their schools. This is different than in ICT where professional support takes the form of creating opportunities or allowing teachers to voice their thoughts on school matters. The former requires greater action

and effort on a teacher's part while the latter can occur during routine meetings and through discussion.

The first major theme in AE, personal interaction, centered around principals expressing gratitude. Respondents frequently described principals actively practicing some form of praise and public recognition via email, newsletters, announcements, and personal thank-you comments. Principals appear use both formal procedures and spontaneous actions to express their gratitude. The first teacher describes several ways her principal recognizes teacher engagement, including financial awards and recorded commendations. The second teacher describes a principal who appears to believe strongly in praising teachers by making it a regular part of his routine.

Our principal has many options: bonus checks that can be distributed at his discretion; openly acknowledge via email, principals' monthly letter, school newspaper and staff meetings; accommodations in employee records ... (Conformist, female, Technology/Computers, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Our principal is constantly recognizing people's hard work in and outside of the school building. He encourages participation and engagement within both our school and local community. (Exemplary, female, Social Studies, 6-16 years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Teachers also frequently mentioned principals seeking their involvement in school activities. Most of this involvement is school based, but some teachers mentioned principals encouraging them to get involved at the district level. The first teacher describes a principal who works with teachers as they engage in school related activities and then supports their efforts in the broader school community. The second teacher describes a principal who creates opportunities for engagement and values teacher contributions and risk taking. The third teacher describes a principal who actively communicates educational matters beyond the school level. All three comments reflect the use of collaboration and committees as the means for

engagement. The fourth teacher explicitly mentions a PLC, the organizational structure theme.

Most comments related to the personal interaction theme also mentioned some form of committee work.

Our principal actively supports teacher engagement on matters that affect the school by engaging in the activity/endeavor with the teachers, by contributing additional knowledge, experience, and current research on the subject at hand, by advocating for the matter/activity/initiative at the district level to ensure continued support of the project, and by providing support to the teachers through advocating to parents /students / community. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years teaching and 11-16 with principal)

By forming committees, asking teachers to present their work to colleagues, and praising teachers that work beyond their comfortable limits. (Exemplary, female, Math, 6-16 years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Keeping us in the loop of what is to come (district wise, state wise), frequently asking for volunteers for committees re: such matters. Etc. (Conformist, female, Special Education, 17-29 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Yes! We have school wide PLCs with mixed departments, he also often asks for staff to step up to the plate and be a part of committees or other meetings. (Exemplary, female, Technology/Computers, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Organizational Structure. The second major theme, organizational structure, naturally fits with teacher engagement and the committee structure common to most modern schools. Between references to committees in general and PLCs and leadership teams in particular, more than 120 comments were made about the use of committees to actively engage teachers beyond the classroom. Some of these committees are formed and led by teachers, others may be facilitated by school leaders and teachers are invited to join. The first two comments describe general committees available to teachers where they can engage in a wide range of school matters, including the hiring process for a new school administrator.

We have many opportunities to shape the school. There is often a committee for professional interests that teachers have. Recent examples are the late start committee and the advisory committees. Teachers can also express their opinions in the monthly

advisory meetings attended by department heads or by simply talking to the principal. (Exemplary, male, World Languages, 17-29 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Opportunity to join committees. Currently we are hiring an assistant principal and teachers have been allowed to be part of that decision. (Exemplary, female, Technology/Computers, first five years teaching and less than five with principal)

Professional Learning Communities have become a specific form of committee work that has gained popularity in schools. Designed to promote communities of inquiry in schools, PLCs are often led by teachers (DuFour & Eaker, 1998). The following teacher describes *PLC time*, which is time dedicated for teachers to collaborate in their learning. She also specifically mentions other committees at her school that are openly encouraged and supported by school leadership.

We have Critical Friends Groups, PLC time, Advisory committees, and an open-door policy from the administration. Teachers are actively involved in curriculum development. Teachers are encouraged to bring forth ideas/issues for faculty discussion. (Exemplary, female, Math, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Professional Support. The third major theme, professional support, was less common in AE than ICT and often took the form of a principal's support of teacher-initiated activities versus classroom autonomy. The first teacher describes a school in where the principal supports committees created by community members. The second teacher describes her principal's openness to ideas for teacher engagement that directly benefit the school community. The third teacher describes at length the support her principal provides for teacher created and led initiatives and the impact it has on her professionally.

He has many committee groups that are open for people to attend if they are interested-most initiatives are 'grass roots' and organized by teacher, students, and administrator groups. (Exemplary, female, Science, 6-16 years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

If you have good ideas with and you can explain the logic behind your initiative, he'll support it. So, if you are prepared and you have the data to support it, he'll support everything you want to do as long as it benefits the students and the community....and as

long as it doesn't cost money! (Exemplary, female, World Languages, 17-29 years teaching and less than five with principal)

We have faculty study groups. We created one for an all-school reading break initiative five years ago and it is now an integral part of the school day. We have faculty book clubs around professional reading--books proposed by teachers. Our principal finds money to buy them for every staff member who participates. We are invited to be leaders every year--he asks all to apply to be part of the leadership team which is composed mostly of teachers. Our principal is a learner, so he participates in many of the decisions we are wrestling with, but he is one vote. He doesn't overrule teacher requests very often, and when he does, he is clear about his reasons. For example, I am leading a new study group to refine our school-wide reading break next year, but he has made it clear that reading break will stay in the schedule. He manages to balance solving problems with being a true leader. We are so lucky. (Exemplary, female, English, 30+ years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Negative Responses to Open-Ended Questions

The third research question asked respondents to describe ways school principals support teachers independent critical thinking and active engagement in matters that affect their schools. The questions imply that principals support followership, but nearly twenty-percent of respondents chose to answer the questions by describing how principals do not support these followership dimensions or qualified their responses in some manner. Qualified responses typically started out as affirming principals' support of the followership dimensions, but then modified the responses to make them less affirming (e.g. *They sometimes listen to concerns, but often the perception is of a top down approach*). Both types of responses describe barriers to principals' support of followership. A brief description of negative responses to the open-ended ICT and AE questions will examine the dimensions in the same order as presented for the affirmative responses.

Major themes for negative responses include two of the major affirmative themes, organizational structure and personal interaction. Both are described differently by respondents. The most common negative theme relates to the organizational structure theme, but instead of

using committees to support ICT and AE, respondents described traditional organizational hierarchies within their schools and school districts that prevent teachers from thinking independently and actively engaging in school matters.

Negative ICT responses

Administrative Agenda. More than two-thirds of no responses for ICT commented that principals did not support, or could not support, independent thinking on matters that affect the school because of the principal's own agenda or set of beliefs, the superintendent's agenda, or the school board or community's agenda. These were grouped together as a theme of administrative agenda. The theme does not indicate that teachers necessarily disagree with the administrative agendas, but that they prevent their increased followership. The first two teachers describe principals who are sensitive to district and community goals, test scores, and discount thinking by teachers that does not contribute to those goals. Both teachers mention teachers not being a priority for either principal.

Ideas that are not directly related to high test or SAT scores are very often shot down by the principal. I feel that the principal is often reactive to what the community thinks and has a hard time supporting the teachers due to the grief he might receive from the community. (Exemplary, female, Physical Education, first five years teaching and less than five with principal)

He does not. He is more worried about how he "appears" to school board, Superintendent, and parents. He cares about test scores. He cares about what is published. We are LAST on the list. (Exemplary, female, Math, 17-29 years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

A school district's organizational hierarchy acts as a sub-theme of administrative agenda. Several negative comments mentioned principals as part of hierarchies that prevent teachers from contributing more to their schools. One teacher describes his principal as willing but incapable of supporting teachers because of a rigid hierarchy in which decisions are made at the top and

pushed downward where the principal sits just above teachers. The teacher implies that his principal has limited input and control in making school level decisions.

The principal would support teachers if he could, but he is being controlled by a superintendent and school board that has their own top down agenda. The principal has lost all control of his own school. (Exemplary, male, Fine Arts, 30+ years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Another teacher's comment describes a principal who employs a strict hierarchy in her school. No mention is made of district-level directives. Instead, the principal in this school is described as the top and the teachers below work from her directives.

She doesn't support. Not her thing. There is a top down management style at our school. There are directives, assignments and work passed down. There is little upward communication nor is there input from the teachers. (Pragmatist, male, Math, 17-29 years teaching and less than five with principal)

A third teacher describes a traditional organizational hierarchy that prevents followers low in the order from access to the top. In this case, a leadership team, seemingly hand-picked by school leadership, filters information from teachers to the principal. Information that is not valued by the leadership team is either disregarded or potentially used against the teacher who offered it.

In the school I currently work the leadership is a very traditional top-down approach. Within that model there is a separate leadership team created of department heads, administrators, and one teacher representative. Independent thinking among teachers may occur, however it is not represented, supported, or heard within the leadership team. Independent thinking may often be seen as working against department heads and/ or administration. Speaking directly with administration occurs rarely unless there is an issue that cannot be handled within departments. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Negative Personal Interaction. The second negative theme, negative personal interaction, was less commonly mentioned by teachers. Unlike the affirmative personal

interaction theme where teachers mentioned principals actively encouraging independent thought and engagement and praising teachers for their work, comments relating to the negative personal interaction theme centered on principals engaging teachers with whom they have closer personal relationships and favoring some teachers over others. One teacher describes a school in which teachers who do not establish personal relationships with school leaders are reluctant to participate in school life.

Most teachers at my school have learned to keep their heads down and not go "above the radar". Thinking independently is not solicited by the administrative team. Kudos, praise, and promotions are awarded to those who actively seek familiar relationships with the administrative team. (Pragmatist, female, Science, 30+ years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

Negative AE responses

Teacher responses were similar to ICT for ways principals do not support active engagement. The most common was the major theme of administrative agenda, comparable to the affirmative theme organizational structure and the hierarchy sub-theme. Three teacher comments describe principals with set agendas that teachers are expected to follow. In the last case, the teacher describes a situation where teachers are penalized if they do not participate in preferred activities.

He does not. Teachers at my school are regularly stifled from participation unless they agree with his views on the subjects. That is not the way to engage your staff. (Exemplary, female, English, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

She doesn't support the teachers. The school is run by the administration. The teachers are their tools to get a job done. Active engagement is the teachers listening to the administration about what needs to be done. (Pragmatist, male, Math, 17-29 years teaching and less than five with principal)

He talks to his inner circle of colleagues, has them fill the positions of leadership and offers a false invitation to the rest of us. Then he uses our lack of participation against us in our summative evaluation, even though we may have filled other leadership roles, just not his

pet projects. (Exemplary, female, Math, 6-16 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Other teachers describe district level hierarchies that control school matters. Their comments imply that the principals are not in positions to support teacher engagement.

Support for active engagement is not supported. All decisions are top-down, and generally from a level above the principal. (Pragmatist, female, Science, 30+ years teaching and 6-10 with principal)

The principal is not in a position to affect change without permission from above. No one below the board and superintendent level can act as true leaders. All major decisions and initiatives come from the top down. (Exemplary, male, Fine Arts, 17-29 years teaching and less than five with principal)

Analysis of Third Research Question

Three major themes emerged from the 993 responses to the open-ended questions affirming how principals support ICT and AE among teachers. A principal's personal interaction with teachers was most frequently mentioned, followed by professional support for teachers and the organizational structure of schools. Similar themes also emerged for negative responses, primarily a theme of administrative agenda related to the positive theme organizational structure followed by negative personal interaction. The themes that emerged from teacher responses to research question three contribute to existing literature supporting shared leadership practices and the emphasizing importance of empowering teachers as professionals.

Public school leadership continues to be complex and difficult (Fink & Markholt, 2011; Louis et al., 2010; Murphy, 1968; Robinson, 2011; Sergiovanni, 1992; Spillane & Hunt, 2011), thus principals increasingly turn to teacher to help lead. Struggling with high turnover rates for both teachers (Fisher, 2011; Gray & Tai, 2015; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004) and principals (Fuller, 2012; Norton, 2003; Superville, 2014), schools may mitigate systemic factors that propel

teachers and principals from education by developing strong followership cultures to motivate and operationalize teachers as professionals and ease the burden on principals. Motivation is a key factor attributed to improved performance and satisfaction (Favara, 2009; Herzberg, 1968; Kaiser, 1982) and teacher professionalism is positively correlated with student achievement (Tschannen-Moran, Parish, and DiPaola, 2006).

School systems at the district level attend to teachers' basic needs of salary and working conditions. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, these hygiene factors satisfy physical needs, but do not motivate. Social needs must be fulfilled for people to reach the top level of performance, self-actualization (Bolman & Deal, 2008) where motivation is more likely. Principals are left to motivate teachers at the building level. Herzberg (1968) distinguishes between motivating and hygiene factors. Motivating factors, intrinsic to one's job, include achievement, recognition, the work, responsibility, and internal growth or advancement. Hygiene factors, extrinsic to one's job, include policies and their administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security (p. 57). Motivating factors enrich one's job long term, whereas hygiene factors are temporary satisfiers and need to continually be increased to avoid dissatisfaction (Gawel, 1997).

Teacher comments from this study indicate that principals motivate teacher by being available to listen to their ideas and concerns, seeking their input and opinions (personal interaction), engaging teachers in committee work (organizational structure), providing classroom autonomy, and treating them as professionals (professional support). These factors are likely to retain teachers and cultivate a collaborative followership culture of shared ownership and recognition for achievement. The larger roles teachers play in school and the greater voice they have may allow them to feel more responsibility for their work. Creating opportunities to

lead as teachers will help provide some sense of growth and trust in their professionalism if done responsibly, though Herzberg (1968) warns against enlarging versus enriching jobs. Principals must be careful not to create more work for teachers and instead create opportunities for growth that that enrich their existing work.

Teacher comments in this study indicate that they want a voice and role in school matters. Negative responses identified principals and schools that continue to employ traditional forms of organizational structure, specifically hierarchies where command and control is held at the top and directives are filtered through established reporting and communication channels. Negative comments also included examples of principals who do not establish personal relationships with teachers. Among all negative responses, a pattern exists that nearly three-quarters (73%) of negative type comments were reported by teachers who have worked with their principals less than five years. No negative comments were offered by teachers working with their principals for more than 20 years, raising questions about relationships between principals and teachers early in their tenure together and how those relationships may affect followership.

Summary

This study explores followership in an educational context based on Robert Kelley's (1992) followership model. Research questions were designed to identify followership types, determine if associations exist between teachers' demographic characteristics and followership types, and understand how high school principals support teacher followership. Before data were collected, modifications were made to Kelley's *The Followership Questionnaire* (TFQ) to make it more suitable for teachers. Results from the study reveal differences from Kelley's findings, but support modern shared-leadership theory and practices used in many schools.

Results from the first research question identified a distribution of followership types that differs greatly from Robert Kelley's (1992) theoretical distribution in the business industry. More than three-quarter of sampled teachers were identified as exemplary followers, followed by smaller percentages of pragmatist and conformist followers. Alienated and passive followership types were not present. These differences raise questions about whether all of Kelley's five types are present in education. Further analysis raises questions about how the dimensions of Kelley's followership model, independent critical thinking and active engagement, apply to education and what the best methodology might be to study followership in schools.

The second research question explored whether teacher demographic and work characteristics are significantly associated with followership types. Based on the followership types that were identified in the study, teachers tend to move from conformist to pragmatist to exemplary followership types as they gain teaching experience and years in their schools. In general, actively involved and teachers with more experience in education and greater longevity at their schools were found to be associated more with exemplary followership types. Less experienced and involved teachers new to their schools were more likely to be associated with conformist and pragmatist types.

The third research question was designed to add teacher voice to the study by asking teachers directly how their principals support their independent thinking and active engagement on school matters. Nearly 1,000 responses identified three major themes that motivate teachers to become more active members of their school communities. The first, personal interaction, describes principals who actively connect with teachers, asking them for input and feedback, offering praise and recognition, and being open to teachers' ideas and concerns. The second theme, professional support, describes principals who grant teachers autonomy and encourage

risk taking in their work. The third theme, organizational structure, describes schools, which support teachers being involved in decision making through committee and other work.

Chapter 5: Findings, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This study examines teacher followership in large New Hampshire public high schools, extending theory and research from the business industry to education, where principals are leaders and teachers followers. Leadership in education evolved similarly to other industries (Hoerr, 2005). As an inherent component of leadership, followership has always existed, but not until traditional forms of leadership began to evolve from strict hierarchies to shared-responsibilities did a theory of followership begin to attract attention (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Cawthorn, 1996; Malos, 2012). The more that was learned about leaders, the more questions were asked about followers' roles and responsibilities within organizations and their relationships with leaders (Baker et al., 2014). Eventually, a focus on followers began to emerge, identifying their value to organizations and leadership instead of as simply compliments to leaders (Kelley, 1992). This study explores followers as integral components to organizational success, defining followership as a mutually supportive reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers collaborating to support an organization's mission and achieve its goals.

This study found that followership theory applies to education similarly to business but has key differences that require greater investigation before followership types can be used as a diagnostic tool for organizational improvement. Teachers appear to follow differently than those in other industries. Data from sampled teachers in this study show that less variability of followership types exists among teachers. Exemplary types are overrepresented, conformist types underrepresented, and alienated and passive types largely absent compared to Kelley's original estimation. Teachers as well-educated and trained professionals and their role as autonomous

leaders of their own classrooms likely contribute to differences between followership in education and other industries.

This chapter begins with a brief overview of the study before presenting findings in order of research question. Each question will be answered by presenting the findings, their implications, and connections to theory and literature. The chapter concludes with limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

Study Findings

The study draws inspiration and direction from Robert Kelley's *The Power of Followership* (1992) which examines followers as positive contributors to leadership and successful organizations. Kelley developed five types of followers he theorized are found in most organizations (exemplary, conformist, pragmatist, passive, alienated) and a classification tool to determine each type (The Followership Questionnaire (TFQ)). This study uses Kelley's theory and his five followership types as the foundation to begin conceptualizing followership in schools. Types were determined using a modified version of Kelley's TFQ (TFQ(M)).

Research on followership in schools is scant (Bjugstad et al., 2006). This study provides an exploratory examination to assess the applicability of followership theory to schools and inform future research. It was guided by three research questions. First, how are Kelley's five followership types (exemplary, alienated, conformist, passive, pragmatic) distributed among classroom teachers in New Hampshire public high schools? Second, how do followers' demographic characteristics differ across the followership types? Third, what leadership practices support teacher independent thinking and active engagement?

Data were gathered through a survey disseminated to all publicly identifiable teachers in 37 of New Hampshire's largest high schools by student enrollment, theorizing that larger schools with more teachers allowed for greater variation in teacher involvement in school activities, a key component of followership. In sum, 2,583 surveys were shared electronically, and 567 teachers completed them for a response rate of 22%. A final *N* of 559 was used for statistical analysis after removing eight responses that threatened the study's internal validity. The survey consisted of three distinct parts, each designed to address the three research questions.

The first part of the study collected teacher demographic and work information, including gender, age, longevity at a school, and the number of activities teachers are involved with. The second part was a 20-item questionnaire used to determine a followership type for each teacher. The third part asked teachers to respond to two open-ended questions about how their principals support followership.

To understand the distribution of followership types among these teachers (RQ #1), each teacher completed a modified version of Kelley's questionnaire (TFQ). The modified version TFQ(M) improved readability for teachers by substituting education terms for business terms (e.g. principal versus leader). Other modifications to TFQ helped improve its reliability by removing two-part questions to ensure respondents answered the desired question. The modified questionnaire was piloted with a group of teachers and adjustments were made before dissemination to the population of teachers. Responses to TFQ(M) identified followership types for all responding teachers and provided data to understand the distribution of followership types among NH public high school teachers.

The next step compared teachers' demographic characteristics and their followership types to determine whether statistically significant relationships exist between them (RQ #2).

Chi-square tests were performed on all predictor variables and the three followership types (exemplary, conformist, and pragmatist) that emerged from the survey. Of the eleven predictor variables, seven showed statistically significant relationships with followership types.

The last step was to analyze responses to the open-ended questions to learn from teachers how they believe their principals support followership (RQ #3). Teachers were asked two questions relating directly to the two dimensions of followership: Active Engagement (AE) and Independent Critical Thinking (ICT). Data revealed three major themes common to both dimensions that support followership and two that describe barriers to followership (negative responses). In addition to determining followership types using TFQ(M), teachers also selected a followership type from a list of descriptions of each type without naming the followership type. Results were used to better understand TFQ(M) and its use identifying teachers' followership types and provide suggestions for future followership research.

Discussion of the three research questions and the modified survey instrument will be followed by conclusions and recommendations, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Research Questions

Question One: Distribution of Followership Types

The first research question identified the distribution of followership types among New Hampshire public high school teachers who responded to the survey. Of the 559 responses used for analysis, 427 teachers (76.4%) were identified as exemplary followers, 83 (14.8%) as pragmatist followers, and 49 (8.7%) as conformist followers. No passive or alienated followers were identified. These results differ from the distribution originally theorized by Kelley (1992), which conceived of exemplary types comprising a smaller percentage of followers within an

organization. Previous education and followership research offers a few reasons for the disparity between Kelley's results and those found in this study.

One explanation may be that schools as organizations have key differences from non-educational organizations, especially those from which Kelley used to research and design TFQ. First, schools are unique in that all classroom teachers, the majority of the workforce in any school, occupy both formal leader and follower roles (Carsten et al., 1997). Classrooms become micro-organizations within the larger school structure with teachers as *de facto* leaders. Their work is largely their own. Principals often lack the time or will to provide significant oversight and evaluation of teacher practice (Bridges, 1990; Connelly, DeMitchell, & Gagnon, 2014; National Board Resource Center, 2010), thus teachers are responsible for most of their own work and likely to see themselves as independent actors and leaders within their classrooms.

Another explanation may be that teachers are different, on average, from the employees in businesses and other organizations in Kelley's focus groups. Teachers are well educated in the field and maintain an expertise similar to followers in other professional fields like law or medicine. In schools, a teacher's classroom role is distinct but central to a school's purpose, what Kelley describes as "critical paths" to organizational goals (1992, p. 139). Even without teachers engaging in schools beyond their classrooms, their work constitutes the critical path.

The organizational structure of schools also differs from other industries. Though schools share many similarities with other types of organizations (The Wallace Foundation, 2013), they more often have flatter structures (Van Wart, 2013), using teams (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Cawthorn, 1996; Malos, 2012) and collaboration to execute leadership functions (Crippen 2012; Fink & Markholt, 2011; Liberman et al., 1988; Louis et al., 2010). Followership types that result from less engagement (e.g. passive and alienated) are unlikely to be found in flatter

organizations, as evidenced by their absence in this and other followership studies conducted in schools. Conversely, followership types that result from more engagement (e.g. exemplary, pragmatist, and conformist) may be overrepresented in schools.

The conformist type represents less than 9% of those identified in this study, more than other similar studies (Francis, 2014; Mertler et al., 1997), but much less than Kelley's estimation of 25-30%. Schools are complex organizations (Elmore, 1990; Fink & Markholt, 2011; Hauge et al., 2014; Lumby, 2013; Tschannen-Moran, 2009), and the conformist type is less likely to exist in complex and unstable organizations than those with command-and-control leaders micro-managing followers' work (Kelley, 1992). It is not surprising that so few teachers are identified as conformist followers in schools given that teachers are in charge of their own classrooms and principals typically too busy to interfere (Connelly et al., 2014).

Pragmatist types represent nearly 15% of all types identified in this study. Without including the pragmatist type, the distribution would include one alienated type, three passive types, and 16 additional conformist types. The pragmatist type, described by Kelley (1992) includes followers who "hug the middle of the road" (p. 117). Other followership scholars do not conceive of a pragmatist type. Kelley justifies retaining the pragmatist type for the number of followers who endure fluctuations in leadership and organizations to keep their jobs for the long term (1992, p. 119). This would certainly apply to teachers, especially before receiving tenure protections.

Though Kelley (1992) finds value in all followership types, he holds the exemplary types as the preferred type, describing good followership as "people who take appropriate actions with great skill and achievement" (p. 47). This view is supported by other followership scholars (Blackshear, 2004; Chaleff, 1995; Kellerman, 2008). It may not be surprising that a

disproportionate number of respondents in this study and others are typed as exemplary, largely due to their role as leaders in their own classrooms and the flatter organizational structure of schools. Also, those who choose to respond to an external research questionnaire may naturally be more invested in education and willing to express their thoughts, the two dimensions of followership, though this cannot be conclusively determined from the data.

Question Two: Associations Between Followership Types and Teacher Demographic Characteristics

The second research question explored relationships between three followership types (exemplary, pragmatist, conformist) and teacher demographic characteristics. Passive and alienated followership types were not present in the data⁴. Statistically significant relationships were found to exist between the three followership types and seven of the eleven demographic characteristics. All statistically significant relationships, as determined by Cramer's V, were small to medium effect sizes. The strongest relationship was the number of non-contractual activities teachers are involved in, followed by leadership training, years teaching, longevity at their current schools, the subject area they teach, gender, and age. No statistically significant relationships were found for a teacher's education level, whether they hold degrees in school administration, are certified principals, or the number of years they have worked with their principals.

Understanding associations between followership types and teachers' work and personal demographic characteristics depend on results from the survey instrument TFQ(M). Kelley's TFQ has been found to be valid and reliable to identify followership types (Blanchard et al.,

⁴ One teacher was typed as an alienated follower but was removed from analysis when the teacher commented that he intentionally biased his responses due to a dislike for his principal.

2009; Colangelo, 2000; Mertler et al., 1997; Shahbazi et al., 2014; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). As in this study, most researchers have modified TFQ to tailor it to their research subjects (Blanchard et al., 2009; Colangelo, 2000; Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Favara, 2009; Shahbazi et al., 2014; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002). Potential followership types identified in this study are limited to the five potentially produced from TFQ(M). The study identified three types: exemplary (76%), pragmatist (15%), and conformist (95). Two types were not identified: alienated and passive.

Associations between the three identified followership types and teacher demographic characteristics were discovered with seven of the eleven predictor variables. One predictor, non-contractual involvement, stood out with the strongest association ($p < .001$). Non-contractual activities are those that teachers perform in addition to what is required. The strong association can be expected, as active engagement within an organization is one of the central components of followership. Nearly eighty percent of teachers in the study are involved with at least one activity in addition to those contractually required. Not surprisingly, a larger percentage of conformist followers participate in zero activities than the pragmatist or exemplary types. Kelley's original TFQ and the modified version, TFQ(M), used in this study are designed to identify specific types. The three identified in this study all require higher levels engagement. Though the study does not ask specifically in what activities teachers participate, followership theory holds that more follower involvement in the organization supports organizational success (Blackshear, 2004; Crippen, 2008; Kelley, 1992; Mertler et al., 1997).

The next group of predictors with significant relationships ($p < .01$) to followership types includes leadership training, years teaching, years at current school, subject area, and gender. Leadership training, specifically about the importance of leadership and leadership teams, has become part of professional development for many teachers (Jaquith et al., 2010), possibly

explaining this relationship. Teachers' experience and longevity in one school likely contribute to increased contribution beyond the classroom. As teachers gain experience, the job often becomes more routine, allowing teachers more time to become involved. A teacher's longevity at a particular school may engender greater loyalty, thus increasing the likelihood of a more exemplary followership type.

This study found that male and female teachers are similarly associated with the exemplary followership type, but females are associated more with conformist types and males with pragmatist types. This somewhat contradicts research in gender and engagement in schools that finds that women reported higher levels of initiative, commitment, and collaboration as teachers than men (Mertler et al., 1997). It should be noted that women out-numbered men more than two to one in this study. Research that indicates that women tend to adopt more people-oriented leadership qualities (Eagley & Johnson, 1990; Kumasey et al., 2014) raises questions about differences between leadership and followership with men and women.

The study also revealed a statistically significant association between teachers' subject areas and followership types ($p < .01$). The subjects Mathematics, English Language Arts, and Technology revealed notable differences between what should be expected and what was discovered. It is difficult to explain why teachers in any one subject area would be associated with a particular type. Are Math teachers, found to be more conformist and pragmatist than exemplary, more practical in their work, focusing more on teaching and less on school-wide matters? Similarly, why are English and Technology teachers associated more with exemplary types? Do these teachers have particular skill-sets necessary for broader school issues? This study cannot infer from the data why some subjects may be associated more with some

followership types than others. Additional research must be done to discover reasons for these results.

The weakest relationship ($p < .05$) between followership type and predictor variable exists for age. Younger teachers are associated more with conformist and pragmatist types until age 50 when they are associated more with exemplary types. It is likely that age and years of experience are closely linked, accounting for the significant relationship. Years of experience in schools matters more than age. Second career teachers starting at older ages experience similar adjustments to the profession as younger teachers.

Four predictors were found not to be significantly associated with followership types. Teachers are required to possess bachelor's degrees and it has become standard practice for teachers to earn master's degrees, thus associations with particular followership types are unlikely. Teachers who pursue degrees in school administration and principal certification are exploring a change of role from teacher to administrator. Because the survey instrument asks questions about a teacher's role in school, not questions about advancement or changing roles, responses focused on a teacher's aspirations for promotion would not factor into a followership type. The weakest overall association between predictor and followership type was the number of years teachers have worked with their principals. Only three questions on TFQ(M) ask teachers about their work with their principals. Most questions ask about their contributions to their schools. In addition, nearly three-quarters of respondents have worked with their principals less than five years. The focus of TFQ(M) is not the relationship between teacher and principal, so it follows that this predictor would not be significantly associated with followership type.

Question Three: Ways Principals Support Teacher Followership

The goal of the third research question was to provide teacher “voice” to the quantitative results of TFQ(M). Teachers were asked two open-ended questions about how they feel their principals support followership dimensions of Independent Critical Thinking (ICT) and Active Engagement (AE). Several themes emerged from the responses that support teachers’ desire to be involved, in some manner, with building level school leadership or at least have a means to express their professional perspective. Positive responses emerged from teachers’ comments that align with modern shared leadership practices. Most negative comments, from those teachers who do not believe their principals support their followership, describe characteristics of traditional bureaucratic and command-and-control style leadership.

It has been well established that traditional forms of school leadership that support the principal as the single leader is not the most effective model for schools (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2013; Burns, 2003; Crawford, 2012; Crippen, 2012; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Elmore, 2000; Fink & Markholt, 2011; Liberman et al., 1988; Louis et al., 2010; Mertler et al., 1997; The Wallace Foundation, 2013). Reasons typically point to the complexities of the job but focus on difficulties principals face as school leaders ignores contributions made by others who support leadership within the school. Complexities of school leadership are systemic and not the result of one position or person. Leaders change, but the complexities remain, thus adopting a broader understanding of all who contribute to school level leadership is necessary. Followership in the context of this study focuses on teachers and the importance of their contributions to leadership of schools, including but not limited to the principal. If schools are too complex for a solo leader (Crawford, 2012) to be effective, then others are necessary to help. It makes sense when choosing helpers to utilize other qualified education professionals, specifically teachers.

Meghann Tchannen-Moran (2009), an educational researcher focusing on the social psychology of schools, argues that traditional hierarchy organization models and command-and-control style leadership contribute to lower teacher “satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and creativity” and “inhibit the adaptations necessary in a changing external environment” (p. 219). Instead, she advocates for principals adopting professional orientations toward teachers grounded in trust. This she claims will enable (Hoy & Sweetland, 2000) teachers as professionals to make complex individual and joint decisions, support rigorous professional inquiry, and ultimately promote student achievement (Elmore, Peterson, & McCarthy, 1996; Fullan 2003; The Wallace Foundation, 2013), though this study makes no empirical claim that followership promotes student achievement.

Positive teacher responses in this study indicate that many principals have adopted professional orientations toward teacher involvement in school leadership by supporting professional learning communities, establishing leadership teams including teachers, seeking teacher input and opinions, encouraging participation and feedback, and trusting teachers by encouraging risk taking and initiative. In these schools, teachers are empowered as professional educators to contribute to school and student success. Negative teacher responses indicate that some principals maintain a traditional hierarchy with themselves at the top and have bureaucratic orientations where teachers are not viewed as professionals. Teachers reported feeling that these principals work from their own agenda or a district agenda (i.e. superintendent or school board) and do not support real teacher involvement or voice. The cost of principals controlling leadership functions from the top and teacher-proofing schools is the deskilling of teachers and a reduction in teacher morale and intellectual investment, the exact opposite of what is likely to create successful schools.

Conclusions and Recommendations

First Conclusion

Public high schools may benefit from a leadership model that strengthens teachers' contributions to schools. A number of scholars believe that schools are a natural fit for shared leadership. The knowledge gap between principals (leaders) and teachers (followers) is small, with teachers often being as well-educated and experienced in the field and often have a skill-set their principals lack (Elmore, 1990; Leithwood et al., 2013; Liberman et al., 1998). In this study, 75% of respondents hold at least a master's degree, similar to what is often required for principals, and 43% have taught for more than 16 years. Not including teachers in school leadership in some manner may sacrifice opportunities to reduce the burden on principals, motivate teachers, and strengthen the learning community.

Recommendation. Principals should work to establish school cultures that foster teachers as integral contributors to school leadership. Many schools already have active Professional Learning Communities, leadership teams, and other opportunities for teachers to engage in their schools beyond their classrooms, but the extent to which these avenues actually contribute to school success largely depends on principals allowing teachers' work to affect change. This requires principals trusting teachers' professionalism (Tschannen-Moran, 2009) and letting go of their own authority in favor of teachers. Principals would still be critical for such a model to be successful.

Principals are necessary in a shared-leadership model to establish a culture of collaboration and shared responsibility (Hunter-Boykin & Evans, 1995), especially in schools when teachers' primary responsibility lies within the classroom. Principals are also crucial to

balancing bureaucratic structures that keeps schools functioning with the professional orientation necessary to motivate teachers (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Once a culture is established that truly values teachers' professional contributions to school success, followership becomes possible as more teachers will be willing to engage at the organizational level and offer constructive input. School administrators and teachers can then collaboratively identify which teachers choose to participate more formally in school leadership functions and which choose to remain in a less participatory followership role. In other words, once a true followership culture is established, followership types can be utilized to help identify exemplary followers that can effectively and willingly contribute to school success yet maintain conditions whereby others remain less involved but are still permitted a voice in leadership until such a time that they might choose to become more involved.

Second Conclusion

One's followership type is not fixed but determined as a result of personal and work variables, especially in relation to leaders (Blackshear, 2004; Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992). If principals are to use followership types to help identify how teachers are currently following, they must make sure the instrument they use to identify types matches their followers (Kilburn, 2010). Kelley's instrument for determining followership types (TFQ) does not account for the unique organizational structure of schools and thus cannot accurately categorize teachers as followers according to his model.

Schools contain a fundamental difference from other types of organizations: the classroom. Teachers as followers within schools have a primary responsibility as classroom leaders. Much of their days are spent in control of their work with little oversight from leaders. Using TFQ to determine teachers' contributions at the organizational level does not effectively

account for a classroom situation. When responding to TFQ items, teachers can easily conflate their work in classrooms with their work in the school more broadly. This potential also raises questions about how the classroom fits into a followership model that ranks more highly followers who contribute more to organizations. How does such a model account for varying degrees of excellence within classrooms, never mind try to measure it?

The percentage of exemplary followership types identified in this study far exceeds Kelley's original estimation. Kelley designed his followership model and TFQ in the late 1980s based on information from major corporations and business schools when traditional leadership structures were more common than today. Any instrument used to identify teacher followership types must attend to the influence of teachers' classroom work and an assumption that schools already have a relatively flat organizational structure. Education must be viewed through a lens more similar to other professional fields like medicine or law where followers act as autonomous professionals within a larger organization.

Incorporating followership theory as a means of focusing on teachers' contributions to schools may be a powerful motivator and possible solution for overburdened principals to lead more effectively. Being able to situationally identify types can be a helpful tool when making decisions, including organizational improvement or identifying potential leaders (Kilburn, 2010); however, in its current form TFQ, or this study's modification of it (TFQ(M)), does not seem to accurately categorize teachers by followership type.

The survey questionnaire used in this study, TFQ(M), asked respondents an additional question to help identify followership types and inform future research on Kelley's TFQ. The question listed descriptions of each followership type described by Kelley (1992). Teachers did not receive a type label when making their selections. Responses to this question from the same

sample group identified all five followership types, versus three from TFQ(M), and greatly changed the distribution of followers for each type, raising questions that Kelley's tool, or even a modification of it, may not accurately identify teacher followership types.

Recommendation. Principals and other school officials, including teachers, should identify followership types to help select teachers for leadership positions, support professional growth plans, support existing leadership, and make organizational decisions, but not until a valid and reliable educational version of TFQ has been created. A new instrument must attend to the classroom influence when determining types, developing specific questions relating to classrooms and explicitly differentiating between teachers' classroom roles and those within a broader school context. Followership types should also be used in conjunction with other data, including goal setting (Lazenby, 2008) and discussions with teachers, to develop a broader picture of a teacher's role as a follower.

Attention must also be paid to whether alienated and passive followership types exist in education. In school studies that have used a version of TFQ, few identify either type (Francis, 2014; Mertler et al., 1997). Though this study did not identify these types, it cannot be determined from the data that these types do not exist in schools.

Third Conclusion

School principals have little control over teachers' hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1968), including salary and most working conditions. These factors are satisfied at the district level and often through collective bargaining agreements. Principals have more direct control over teachers' motivating factors, including opportunities for growth and achievement, daily work, responsibilities, recognition, and praise (p. 57). These latter social needs must be fulfilled for people to reach the top level, self-actualization (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Principals should focus

on motivating factors to help enrich teachers' jobs long term and avoid dissatisfaction (Gawel, 1997). Motivating factors mentioned by teachers in this study include committee work, classroom autonomy, being treated as professionals, opportunities for input, and principals' openness.

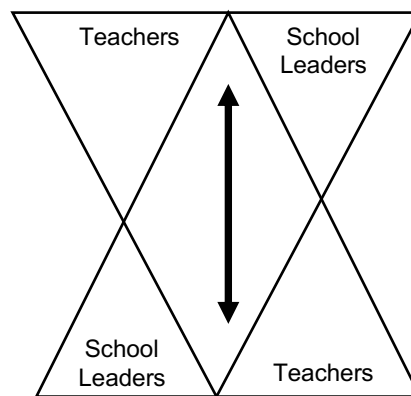
Recommendation. Principals should continue to utilize existing administrative systems (e.g. vice principals, leadership teams) and teacher led committees (e.g. PLCs, Curriculum Committees) but must also create a culture whereby all teachers have opportunities for growth and the ability to express themselves as professionals. Principals must also be careful to enrich versus expand teachers' work (Herzberg, 1968; Kaiser, 1982). Creating more work for teachers will not motivate but create burnout. Instead, principals should operationalize teachers as professionals to help lead schools, especially in areas of teacher expertise related to curriculum and learning.

Existing structures, including Professional Learning Communities, provide excellent opportunities for teachers to share leadership with principals. PLCs do not replace existing leadership structures but offer opportunities for teachers to lead in a hybrid model that retains more bureaucratic functions with school administrators and professional functions with teachers (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). The following comments from an exemplary typed teacher in this study describe a situation where the principal balances bureaucratic and professional orientations.

He is involved with the entire process of matters that affect the school when asked. Previous principals would give too much independence and expect you to come up with processes on their own. If it didn't work, they would be disappointed and claim it was not their responsibility. The current principal is involved and there through the whole process, not taking over the situation, but involved in it, almost as a peer. He trusts that I am a professional and that I will take care of business but with his help and support.

Figure 14 depicts a shared model as a hybrid of bureaucratic and professional school functions. In this model, principals and other school administrators extend greater trust to teachers, believing in their capacities as professional educators. This requires that principals avoid bureaucratic practices including micro-managing, increasing the number of school policies, and controlling teachers' activities. Instead, principals should improve communication, increase teacher autonomy in and outside of classrooms, and be more flexible to increase teacher capacity and efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

Figure 14. Hybrid Model of Bureaucratic and Professional School Leadership Orientations



Source: Tschannen-Moran, M. (2009). Fostering teacher professionalism in schools: The role of leadership orientation and trust. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 45(2), 217-247.

Fourth Conclusion

Results from TFQ(M) reveal lower average scores for ICT than AE, indicating that teachers are less likely to think independently about their work at school than they are to engage in their work. Despite the lack of independent critical thinking as defined by Kelley, teachers are committed to their schools and their teaching colleagues. Both dimensions of Kelley's followership model are valued equally. Other models do not include ICT as a dimension and

only use a single dimension to establish followership types (Blackshear, 2004; Chaleff, 2003; Kellerman, 2008).

Though similarities between education and other types of organizations exist, the differences between them raise the question about whether both dimensions of Kelley's followership model should be used to determine types in schools. Teachers are highly educated professionals who may not consider principals' perspectives unless it directly impacts their classroom work or interferes with work on committees, thus the ICT dimension should be viewed separately from AE. Kellerman's (2008) single axis continuum is based solely on a follower's level of engagement. Blackshear (2004) has a similar model based on a follower's performance level. Kelley's AE dimension can stand alone as a measure of followership depicting teachers' differing level of engagement and commitment to their schools.

Recommendation. Develop a new followership model grounded in teacher engagement. This model would attend to school specific influences on teacher followership, particularly the influence of a teacher's classroom role. Independent critical thinking might be included as a subset of engagement. For example, to what extent do teachers think independently in their work as teachers both in the classroom and while involved with extra-classroom engagement (e.g. committee work)? Types associated with this model are most likely influenced by a teacher's situational followership position relative to their relationship with their principal and motivational factors including a sense of achievement, degree of recognition received, satisfaction with the work itself, feeling of responsibility, and opportunities for internal growth or advancement as teachers. Consequently, the followership types can be characterized as dynamic and fluid and not as independent silos.

Limitations

This study is limited by those who chose to respond to the questionnaire. It can be assumed that teachers who took the time to respond cared enough about their work and the field of education to participate in a doctoral study. Self-report bias is also problematic for any study that uses a questionnaire for data collection. Thus, as seen in statistics comparing this study to others and Kelley's original estimation, it is likely that exemplary followers are over-represented in the data.

It is further limited by the type of schools from which the teachers were sampled. This study only used large public New Hampshire high schools. Results may not be generalizable to other types of New Hampshire schools, especially middle and elementary schools and especially schools nationally. New Hampshire is on average, one of the wealthiest states in the nation (Posey, 2016; The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation, 2015), thus most high schools provide numerous clubs, activities, and committees for which teachers can volunteer. It may be unclear from the data how generalizable the findings would be to less affluent schools nationwide where teachers would not have such opportunities and as a result might score lower on the active engagement scale despite their desire to participate more. This study is also not generalizable to private high schools where teacher involvement is often required by contract.

An absence of cultural and racial influence exists in the followership literature. This study, conducted with a predominantly white population of teachers in a largely racially and culturally homogenous state is limited in its generalizability to more diverse schools.

This study may also be limited by the research instrument. Results from TFQ(M) are accurate for the data presented, but its use in schools may not accurately capture highly educated and well-trained professional teachers nor the influence of classrooms on their responses to

survey items. Results and associations made to respondent demographic and work characteristics do not include all of Kelley's five followership types, thus it is impossible to draw conclusions about associations with the missing types.

Finally, this study is limited by its research methodology. To truly understand followership in a school context, more qualitative investigation would help to better understand teachers' perceptions of followership in schools that the existing survey questionnaire cannot capture.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future followership research in schools should attend first to developing a school specific survey instrument. The disproportionate percentage of exemplary followership types and absence of passive, alienated, and conformist types indicates that Kelley's TFQ needs more than modification to accurately capture teachers' followership types. The self-selection question in this study that produced a sharply different distribution of followership types than the TFQ(M) also suggests a lack of congruence between Kelley's types and his instrument designed to classify followers by type.

Kelley (1992) utilizes two dimensions of followership to determine followership types. Kellerman (2008) and Blackshear (2004) conceive of followership types based on a single dimension. Future research might also examine the relationship between Kelley's two dimensions of followership (ICT and AE) and determine whether they necessarily work in concert to determine followership types. In schools, this is especially important, as application of Kelley's model where ICT contributes 50% to followership type may depress overall followership scores. Teachers-followers as professionals with autonomous classroom

responsibilities have different relationships with principal-leaders than those relationships that served as the basis for Kelley's model. Understanding the interaction between ICT and AE in the followership model will help inform future models.

Extra-classroom teacher motivation factors should also be examined relative to classroom teacher motivation factors. Exemplary followership types require high levels of engagement which requires motivation for sustainability (Herzberg, 1968; Kaiser, 1982). Followership models grounded in teacher engagement should attend to whether teachers are motivated to engage in extra-classroom roles. If not, including teachers in school leadership at the organizational level will be counterproductive.

Teachers who responded to the survey, overwhelmingly identified as exemplary followers, possibly indicating that they favor more personal relationships with their principals and opportunities to engage as professionals. Future research into teacher-principal relationships as motivation for increased engagement in school matters may help explain how these relationships impact teacher followership. Future research should also explore more diverse populations of teachers and principals for the impact that race and culture play in teacher followership.

Summary

Schools have become too complex for a single leader, the principal, to effectively lead. Schools have evolved from the one room schoolhouse to the multimillion-dollar high school organization, with a large faculty from diverse areas of study with a large support staff, delivering a variety of academic and extracurricular programs. School leadership has evolved to meet these emerging demands. To ease the burden of balancing management and leadership

responsibilities, principals turn to others for help, sharing leadership with followers. Schools' relatively flat organizational structures are a natural fit for shared leadership models, but how and with whom leadership is shared determines their effectiveness. To fully capitalize on the power of followers in schools, teachers must be the focus of a shared leadership model.

Followership theory and practice creates the conditions necessary to utilize teachers' capacity for school effectiveness.

Followership strengthens shared leadership by shifting focus from leaders and leadership, a top-down hierarchical model, to followers, reconceiving the source of expertise in schools and acknowledging teachers' professional capacity as educators. Existing shared leadership models do not sufficiently shift the focus from leader to follower. Leadership teams consisting of assistant principals and administrative appointments to teacher leader positions recreate traditional hierarchical leadership models and do not focus first on followers. True followership in schools engenders a greater sense of efficacy in teachers and operationalizes their collective knowledge, skills, and experience to improve schools from within.

For followership theory to move to practice, school leaders must work with followers to create a culture that encourages and utilizes teacher input and engagement. Schools must create new and strengthen existing opportunities for teacher engagement that directly impacts teachers' core responsibilities, the classroom. Teachers should be trusted to lead on classroom matters including curriculum, assessment and grading, and classroom management based on their professional training and expertise. Schools must provide avenues for teacher voice to constructively thrive, both publicly and privately. Faculty meetings and smaller committees should encourage diverse opinions on school matters and school leaders should encourage a free-flow of ideas. Including teachers in this manner serves to motivate teachers, improve schools,

and positively impact student achievement. To put theory into practice, an education specific followership model focusing on teachers' engagement in schools is necessary. The model would include followership types designed specifically to address the influence of teacher classroom leadership on school success. These types would help principals and teachers understand how teachers currently engage in their work and find ways to make them more effective.

Followership theory shifts the focus from leaders to followers but does not ignore the importance of leaders in organizations. Strengthening teachers' roles and responsibilities in schools does not weaken the principalship but reconceives its role as part of a larger team of professionals. Shared-leadership is only as effective as those with whom it is shared. Teachers are an un-tapped resource for school improvement. Reconceiving teachers' roles in school leadership by empowering and operationalizing them as followers recognizes their professionalism and motivates them to engage and contribute more actively in school success for student achievement.

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Appendix A1

Survey Email Message to Teachers

Dear Teacher,

Thank you for your work in education. As an educator myself, I understand that your time is limited and precious. I am conducting research for my PhD dissertation and would appreciate your participation. Please click on the link:

https://unh.az1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_06OkG3tdzndcYvz

As an incentive for your participation, you may enter a drawing to win one of eight (8) \$25 gift cards. Winners will be drawn after each group of 50 responses.

Schools cannot succeed without dedicated teachers. The aim of this study is to understand teachers' work in their schools, with school leaders, and how to improve schools through collaboration between school leadership and the teaching faculty.

Results are completely anonymous and used only for research purposes. After a few demographic questions, the main part of the survey consists of 21 questions used to determine "followership" types and a few short answer questions to allow you to provide "voice" to the survey.

Thank you in advance for your participation in this important research.

Matthew Hicks
Doctoral Candidate
University of New Hampshire

Appendix A2

High Schools Included in Study

NH High School Enrollment in Schools with Student Populations Greater than 500. Updated January 28, 2016. Source: NH Department of Education. Schools struck were not used in the study.

School	In Study	Enrollment	Notes
Bow	Y	587	
Claremont/Stevens	N	528	Emails buried in Google Sites
Contoocook Valley	Y	787	
Conway	Y	816	
Dresden	Y	691	
Fall Mountain	Y	523	
Gilford	Y	511	
Governor Wentworth	N	799	Emails not readily available
Hollis-Brookline	Y	812	
John Stark	Y	688	10 teachers for Pilot, remove from full survey
Kearsarge	Y	566	
Laconia	Y	586	
Lebanon	Y	605	
Manchester West	Y	929	
Merrimack Valley	Y	846	
Milford	Y	825	
Monadnock	Y	528	
Oyster River	Y	714	
Pelham	Y	627	
Pembroke	Y	832	
Plymouth	Y	682	
Sanborn	Y	659	
Souhegan	N	831	No publicly available emails
Windham	Y	848	10 teachers for Pilot, remove from full survey
Coe-Brown	N	701	Public academy—excluded
Bedford	Y	1477	
Concord	Y	1701	
Dover	Y	1332	
Exeter	Y	1734	10 teachers for Pilot, remove from full survey
Goffstown	Y	1107	
Hudson/Alvirne	Y	1303	
Keene	N	1363	No readily available emails
Londonderry	N	1584	Emails buried on Edmodo sites
Manchester Central	Y	1624	
Manchester Memorial	Y	1533	
Merrimack	Y	1210	
Nashua North	Y	1700	

Nashua South	Y	1845	
Portsmouth	Y	1110	
Rochester	Y	1409	
Salem	Y	1206	
Timberlane	Y	1231	
Winnacunnet	Y	1083	
Pinkerton	N	3112	Public academy – excluded
Total Enrollment		28664	

Appendix B1

Original TFQ with Modifications Rationale

Survey – Modifications to Kelley’s (1992) items.

- Original questions listed by number (e.g. 1).
- Modified questions listed by new number (e.g. M1).
- Part A includes the original and modified questions with rationale for changes, explanations, and problems.
- Questions are ordered in columns by Independent Critical Thinking and Active Engagement – two behavior categories used to determine followership type.
- Questions 1-4 are included and noted to be attitude (vs. behavior) questions.
- Questions 15 and 16 are included, but struck through, to signify poor factor load in a previous study (Blanchard, et al., 2009).
- Part B is the first iteration of the modified survey I will use in the study. Kelley’s original had 20 questions. I have maintained 20 to make scoring consistent with the original.
- Changes may be made after further analysis and piloting with a test group.

Part A	
Independent Thinking Items	Active Engagement Items
<p>1. Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?</p> <p>This is one of the attitude factors identified by Blanchard, et al.</p> <p>M1. Does teaching fulfill a goal that is important to you?</p> <p>Rationale: Goals are more inclusive and likely than dreams. A dream is like a goal. Removes conjunction.</p>	<p>2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization’s priority goals?</p> <p>This is one of the attitude factors identified by Blanchard, et al.</p> <p>M2: Are your personal work goals aligned with the school’s goals?</p> <p>Rationale: Replaces generic language with school language. “Priority” goals seems unnecessary. Goals should be sufficient. Respondents shouldn’t be trying to identify school priorities – or differentiating between them. The question is asking if goals are aligned.</p>
<p>5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization’s priority goals?</p> <p>M5. Instead of merely accepting what the principal tells you, do you personally identify</p>	<p>3. Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?</p> <p>This is one of the attitude factors identified by Blanchard, et al.</p> <p>M3: Are you highly committed to your school?</p>

<p>which school activities are most critical for achieving the school's goals?</p> <p>Problem: Still somewhat leading, but how to remove the leading language without making the question too ambiguous. If written "Do you personally identify which school activities are most critical for achieving the school's goals?" it ignores the crucial point of doing this independently.</p> <p>Rationale: Removes conjunction. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>	<p>Rationale: Replaces generic language with school language. Active engagement does not necessarily mean one has to be energized. Removed as unnecessary. Remove conjunction – School is essentially the work.</p> <p>Thought/Problem: This question could be broken in two – the first question about commitment to work, and the second about commitment to school. If respondents see the differently, they'll answer them accordingly.</p>
<p>11. Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?</p> <p>M11. Do you independently think up ideas that will contribute significantly to the school's goals?</p> <p>Rationale: Removes conjunction. Championing something seems more active (AE) than thinking (ICT), so think up was kept. Followership is ultimately about organizational success, so the second conjunction was removed and school retained vs. principal. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>	<p>4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?</p> <p>M4. Are you enthusiastic about your work?</p> <p>This is one of the attitude factors identified by Blanchard, et al.</p> <p>Rationale/Problem: Removes conjunction Assumes respondent is enthusiastic. The second part could be a separate question: "Does your enthusiasm energize your co-workers?" – Not sure this is necessary and calls for the respondent to speculate on something s/he might not know.</p>
<p>12. Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?</p> <p>M12. When problems arise, do you first try to solve them before involving the principal?</p> <p>Rationale: Problems exist in all organizations, but this does not assume that the problems are "tough".</p>	<p>6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?</p> <p>M6. Do you willing work to improve your teaching so that you become more valuable to the school?</p> <p>Rationale:</p>

<p>Remove “technical or organizational” which may confuse respondents. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>	<p>“Distinctive competence” in schools is likely improving teaching. Teachers are required to participate in PD to maintain certification. I ask the question this way because “willingness” aligns with actively being engaged versus only doing so because something (PD) is required. “Critical activities” can be seen as professional growth, or PD. Followership is ultimately about organizational success, so the second conjunction was removed and school retained vs. principal. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>
<p>14. Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil’s advocate if need be?</p> <p>M14: Do you play “devil’s advocate” at school?</p> <p>Rationale: Most people know and understand devil’s advocate, and this moniker sums up the purpose of this question.</p> <p>Problem: Can also be written, “Do you help your principal see the pros and cons of ideas?” – this removes devil’s advocate if that is a potential problem. There’s a potential problem here with group or leader and ICT. It is one thing to question (devil’s advocate) your colleagues (more equal ranking), and another to so with the principal (superior). If this second question is used and conjunctions avoided, group should come out in favor of principal. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>	<p>7. When starting a new job or assignment within your school, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?</p> <p>M7. When starting a new task at school (teaching assignment, committee, etc.) do you work hard to show successes that are important to the principal?</p> <p>Rationale: THIS IS A TOUGH ONE! Unlike in business, new jobs or roles are not terribly common in schools. Teachers may move to a different grade, but typically don’t change too much, especially the best teachers and those later in their careers (seniority). The original question seems to be talking about starting a new position, but I think the point here is the emphasis on grasping change in a positive manner. Adds examples of new tasks. Removes conjunction. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>
<p>16. Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?</p> <p>If kept, maybe ask the question as follows:</p>	<p>8. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with the highest-quality work and that you will “fill in the cracks” if need be?</p>

<p>M16. Are you self-reflective about your strengths and weaknesses?</p> <p>Rationale: Keeps Kelley's original idea about thinking honestly about oneself.</p>	<p>M8a. Can you complete a difficult assignment without much supervision?</p> <p>M8b. Do you complete your work with the highest possible quality?</p> <p>M8c. Do you complete difficult tasks without turning to the principal for guidance?</p> <p>Conclusion: I chose to keep the M8a. Though similar to M4, M8c is nearly identical, and M8b is similar to M9 in that the person is working hard for the benefit of the organization.</p>
<p>17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told?</p> <p>M17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the principal's decisions?</p> <p>Rationale: This is a thinking (ICT) question. The first part of the question addresses the point of questioning leadership. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>	<p>9. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?</p> <p>M9. Do you take initiative to seek out tasks that go above and beyond your job?</p> <p>Rationale: Needs to be broken into two items. The first part of this question is the most important, as the second part (successful completing) is/can be addressed in item 8.</p>
<p>18. When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?</p> <p>M18. If the principal asks you to do something that goes against your professional preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?</p> <p>Rationale: "Preferences" seems awkward but replacing with a word like "beliefs" changes the entire question. This question is about being willing to say no, probably actually telling the leader/principal no. Plain language added (goes against versus runs contrary) to make it easier to read.</p>	<p>10. When are you not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?</p> <p>M10. When you are NOT the leader of a task (committee, project, etc.), do you continue to contribute at a high level?</p> <p>Rationale: CAPS to ensure the question is answered as asked. Otherwise the responses will be opposite of desired. Clarification of task needed with examples. To be actively engaged, it is more important to contribute at a high level than do more than one's share, so the latter is struck to remove the conjunction.</p>

<p>Personal removed – too easily problematic. Professional preferences retained b/c the survey is about the workplace. Replaces generic language with school language.</p>	
<p>19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?</p> <p>M19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than others?</p> <p>Rationale: Need to remove conjunction for clarity. If others is used, it encompasses both the leader and colleagues.</p>	<p>13. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?</p> <p>M13. Do you help out colleagues, even when you don't receive recognition for doing so?</p> <p>Rationale: Removes the second of three parts of this question, making it easier to understand and answer, but preserving its intent. Colleagues is more modern than co-workers.</p>
<p>20. Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with colleagues or reprisals from the leader?</p> <p>M20: Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean reprisals from your principal?</p> <p>Problem: Kelley uses "reprisals". I see this as a strong word that could be softened and have the same meaning. If reprisals equate to retaliation, how often do principals act so aggressively toward teachers. Would the question have the same meaning if it was worded "...even if the principal was angry with you?" or "even if the principal was upset with you?"?</p> <p>Rationale: Replaces generic language with school language. Removes conjunction and focuses on leader. Could be broken into two parts, if necessary, to include a separate question for colleagues, but the focus is really on the leader here.</p>	<p>15. Do you understand the principal's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?</p> <p>If kept, maybe break into two questions: M15a. Do you understand the principal's goals? M15b. Do you work hard to help meet the principal's goals.</p> <p>I kept M15a because it shows whether an employee is paying attention to a larger picture in the organization. M15b is similar to other questions.</p> <p>Question 15 could be eliminated all together to make room in the 10 AE questions for another item.</p>

Appendix B2

Finalized Survey Questions

Response choices with associated point value

Likert Scale 0-6

0=Never

1=Rarely

2=Infrequently

3=Occasionally

4=Often

5=Very Often

6=Almost Always

1. Does teaching consistently fulfill a goal that is important to you? (IT)
2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the school's goals? (AE)
3. Are you highly committed to your school? (AE)
4. Are you enthusiastic about your work? (AE)
5. Instead of accepting what the principal tells you, do you independently identify which school activities are most critical for achieving the school's goals? (IT)
6. Do you willingly work to improve your teaching so that you become more valuable to the school? (AE)
7. When starting a new task at school (teaching assignment, committee, etc.) do you consider outcomes that are important to the principal? (AE)
8. Can you complete a difficult assignment without supervision? (AE)
9. Do you take initiative to seek out tasks that go beyond your job requirements? (AE)
10. When you are NOT the leader of a task (committee, project, etc.), do you continue to contribute at a high level? (AE)
11. Do you independently think up ideas that will contribute significantly to the school's goals? (IT)
12. When problems arise, do you first try to solve them before involving the principal? (IT)
13. Do you help out colleagues, even when you don't receive recognition for doing so? (AE)
14. Do you help your principal see the pros and cons of ideas? (IT)
15. Do you understand the principal's goals for the school? (AE)
16. Are you self-reflective about your strengths and weaknesses? (IT)
17. Do you internally (within yourself) question the principal's decisions? (IT)
18. If the principal asks you to do something that goes against your professional preferences, do you say "no"? (IT)
19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than others? (IT)
20. Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean they differ from your principal? (IT)
21. Please identify one of the following followership types that you believe best fits your work in your current school. If none describes you, please feel free to identify your own type.
 - a. Exemplary: A person who very often thinks independently and is actively engaged at school.

- b. Conformist: A person who very often follows leadership without questioning and is actively engaged in the school.
- c. Pragmatist: A person who occasionally thinks independently and is occasionally active in the school.
- d. Passive: A person who often follows leadership without questioning and is infrequently or rarely active in the school.
- e. Alienated: A person who very often thinks independently and is infrequently or rarely active in the school.

Short Answer Questions

1. How does your principal support teachers thinking independently on matters that affect the school?
2. How does your principal support the active engagement of teachers on matters that affect the school?

Appendix B3

Actual Survey Sent to Teachers

Followership Types Among NH High School Teachers**An Exploratory Study of Followership Types in New Hampshire Public High Schools**

Thank you for taking this survey. Your help is greatly appreciated. The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

The next page contains consent information explaining the survey and how risks to you will be minimized and your information securely protected. After reviewing the information, please click the YES button to acknowledge your consent to proceed with the survey, or NO to exit the survey.

Informed Consent Information

You have been invited to participate in a research project that will study followership types in New Hampshire public high schools. This project is being conducted by Matthew Hicks, a doctoral candidate in the Department of Education at the University of New Hampshire (UNH). The use of human subjects in this project has been approved by the UNH Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research. Please read the following statements. If you understand them and agree to participate, please click on the link at the bottom to indicate your consent and go to the first screen of the survey.

There are anticipated to be 400 participants in this research project.

Participation in this project requires you to (1) provide demographic information, and (2) respond to 21 survey question and two short answer questions.

Participation in this research project requires you to answer questions about your involvement in school activities, the degree of your independent thinking in school matters, and how your principal supports these practices. The demographic information will be kept separately from your responses to the actual survey which is anonymous.

The survey will take approximately fifteen minutes to complete.

The results of this research may be published or reported to scientific bodies, and that any such reports or publications will be reported in a group format. Thus, no individual identity will be determinable through demographic variables such as age, gender, or school affiliation.

Your participation is purely voluntary, you are free to refuse to answer any question, and you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time.

Participation in this project is not expected to present any greater risk of your loss of personal privacy than you would encounter in everyday life when sending and/or receiving information

over the Internet. While it is not possible to identify all risks in such research, all reasonable efforts have been undertaken to minimize any such potential risks.

Any form of communication over the Internet does carry a minimal risk of loss of confidentiality. The responses that you provide will not be encrypted, but the following steps have been taken to minimize any risk to confidentiality: (1) identifying information will be stored separately from responses to the actual survey which is anonymous, and (2) ALL of the information provided will be stored in a password protected environment and that password is known only to the principal investigator, named above.

You are not expected to receive any direct benefits from your participation that the investigator hopes that the information gained here may benefit society indirectly.

If at any time you have questions or concerns about any procedure in this project, you may email the investigator here (matthewhicks12@comcast.net) or speak with the investigator by calling 603-496-4307. If you have questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact Julie Simpson in UNH Research Integrity Services, 603-862-2003 or at julie.simpson@unh.edu

Click Yes to proceed or No to exit.

Yes

No

The first series of questions gathers demographic and professional information for classification purposes.

Please indicate your gender.

Male

Female

Transgender

Please identify your age range.

Younger than 29

29-39

40-49

50+

Please indicate how many years you have been actively teaching.

5 or fewer

6-16

17-29

30+

Please indicate the highest degree you have earned.

Associate's (A.A.)

Bachelor's (B.A./B.S.)

Master's (MEd., etc.)
 Advanced Graduate Study (CAGS, Ed.S.)
 Doctorate (PhD, EdD)

Have you ever taken courses or attended workshops focused on leadership?

Yes, courses
 Yes, workshops
 Yes, both courses and workshops
 No, neither

Do you hold a degree in education administration?

Yes
 No

Are you currently certified as a principal?

Yes
 No

In what subject area do you primarily teach?

Social Studies
 Mathematics
 Science
 English Language Arts
 Physical Education
 Technology/Digital Education
 Fine Arts
 Performing Arts
 Business
 Career, Technical Education, Industrial Arts
 English Language Learning (ELL)
 Life Studies/Wellness
 Health Education/Wellness
 World Languages
 Other (please specify) _____

Please indicate how many years you have worked for your current principal.

less than 5
 6-10
 11-15
 16-20
 21+

Please indicate how many years you have actively taught at your current school.

- 5 or fewer
- 6-16
- 17-29
- 30+

Approximately how many unpaid/non-contractual activities do you participate in at school?

- None
- 1
- 2-4
- 5+

End of Block: Demographic Questions

Start of Block: Followership Questions

The second series of questions asks how you think about your work as a teacher.

The next five questions ask about your thinking as a teacher in your school.

Does teaching consistently fulfill a goal that is important to you?

- Never
- Rarely
- Infrequently
- Occasionally
- Often
- Very Often
- Almost Always

Are you self-reflective about your strengths and weaknesses?

(Response choices remain the same until noted)

Do you independently think up **ideas** that will contribute significantly to the school's goals?

Do you independently identify which school **activities** are most critical for achieving the school's goals?

Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than others?

The next five questions ask you about your thinking as it relates to your principal.

Do you help your principal see the pros and cons of ideas?

Do you internally (within yourself) question the principal's decisions?

When problems at school arise, do you go to the principal first?

Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean they differ from your principal?

If the principal asks you to do something that goes against your professional preferences, do you say "no"?

The third series of question asks about your engagement within your school.

Are you committed to your school?

Are your personal work goals aligned with the school's goals?

Are you enthusiastic about your work?

Do you willingly work to improve your teaching so that you become more valuable to the school?

Can you complete a difficult assignment (e.g. new teaching role, committee, project) without supervision?

The next five questions ask about your work at school.

Do you take initiative to seek out tasks that go beyond your job requirements?

When starting a new task at school (teaching assignment, committee, etc.), do you consider outcomes that are important to the principal?

When you are NOT the leader of a task (committee, project, etc.), do you continue to contribute at a high level?

Do you help out colleagues, even when you don't receive recognition for doing so?

Do you understand the principal's goals for the school?

End of Block: Followership Question

Please identify one of the following descriptions that you believe best fits your work in your current school. If none describes you, please identify your own type and/or explain why none of the choices best describes you.

- A person who very often follows leadership without questioning and is actively engaged in the school outside of normal job duties.

- A person who occasionally thinks independently and is occasionally active in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who very often thinks independently and is actively engaged in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who often follows leadership without questioning and is infrequently or rarely active in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who very often thinks independently and is infrequently or rarely active in the school outside of normal job duties.
- Other (please describe): _____

The last two questions are important to add your voice to this study. Please briefly answer the questions.

How does your principal support teachers thinking independently on matters that affect the school?

How does your principal support the active engagement of teachers on matters that affect the school?

Thank you for your participation in this study and commitment to educational research.

Would you like to be entered into the drawing for one of eight \$25 gift cards? If so, please include your email below. Winners will be determined by random draw and notified via the provided email. Good luck.

Yes, I would like to enter the drawing.

No, do not enter me in the drawing.

Please provide your email address to be entered into the survey. Your email will only be used as a means to contact you in the event you win. It will not be used as part of this study or shared with anyone. Your email will be securely protected and destroyed upon conclusion of the survey.

Thank you for your participation in this survey. It is now complete.

Appendix C

Followership Type Descriptions Provided, Unlabeled, to Respondents

- A person who very often follows leadership without questioning and is actively engaged in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who occasionally thinks independently and is occasionally active in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who very often thinks independently and is actively engaged in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who often follows leadership without questioning and is infrequently or rarely active in the school outside of normal job duties.
- A person who very often thinks independently and is infrequently or rarely active in the school outside of normal job duties.
- Other (please describe): _____

Appendix D

Original IRB approval. Extensions were granted in 2016 and 2017.

University of New Hampshire

Research Integrity Services, Service Building
51 College Road, Durham, NH 03824-3585
Fax: 603-862-3564

20-Nov-2015

Hicks, Matthew
Education, Morrill Hall
126 Mountain Rd.
Concord, NH 03301

IRB #: 6356

Study: An Exploratory Study of Followership Types in New Hampshire High Schools

Approval Date: 20-Nov-2015

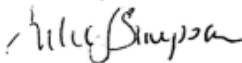
The Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research (IRB) has reviewed and approved the protocol for your study as Expedited as described in Title 45, Code of Federal Regulations (CFR), Part 46, Subsection 110.

Approval is granted to conduct your study as described in your protocol for one year from the approval date above. At the end of the approval period, you will be asked to submit a report with regard to the involvement of human subjects in this study. If your study is still active, you may request an extension of IRB approval.

Researchers who conduct studies involving human subjects have responsibilities as outlined in the attached document, *Responsibilities of Directors of Research Studies Involving Human Subjects*. (This document is also available at <http://unh.edu/research/irb-application-resources>.) Please read this document carefully before commencing your work involving human subjects.

If you have questions or concerns about your study or this approval, please feel free to contact me at 603-862-2003 or Julie.simpson@unh.edu. Please refer to the IRB # above in all correspondence related to this study. The IRB wishes you success with your research.

For the IRB,



Julie F. Simpson
Director

cc: File
DeMitchell, Todd